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EACHERS' COLLEGE EDITION

Louisiana State University Quarterly

JANUARY, 1912
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TEACHERS' COLLEGE AND THE PEABODY DONATION

By ALEX B. COFFEY
Dean of Teachers College, Louisiana State University

A very large percentage of the inventive achievements of the ages has been wrought within the last century. There are hundreds of men now living who are older than the chemical laboratory as an adjunct to college or university study and instruction, while there are hundreds more who were in the midst of their college courses when the physical laboratory made its advent into the university. The really successful growth of the law-school began only fifty-four years ago; and, no longer ago than 1870 "under the rules that followed the adoption of the New York Constitution of 1846, students were admitted to the bar without any requirements as to period of study or mode of training and without satisfactory evidence of character"—the same laxity prevailing in other states.

Of the 3,500 "physicians" in the colonies during the Revolution, there were only 400 who had ever received any sort of medical instruction other than that which was given in the tutor-practioner's office, It was only the other day that a "call from God" was accepted as *prima facie* evidence of a fitness for the ministry. Even so, it was but a short time ago when the doctor, the lawyer, the minister were the "educated" men of the community and, when teachers for the youth were per force of necessity, drawn from such of their numbers as had not yet achieved a living income or from such as had failed altogether in their respective professions.

Realizing all this, need one be surprised at the apparent, the real tardiness with which the popular or even the academic mind has conceded the desirability for academically and professionally equipped men and women who purpose the devotion of their lives to the cause of education?

Comenius, the Moravian, one of the most wonderful teachers of all the ages, had been dead only ten years when, as early as 1681, the Abbe de la Salle, the Franciscan, founded at Rheims a normal school which three years later developed into the Christian Brothers School, by which measure it unfortunately became more ecclesiastically catechetical than professional; but its lesson had been taught and learned, and its fruitage was inevitable. Pestalozzi, the Switzer—Herbart, the German—and Tickner, the American—all, in time, became imbued with the conviction that an especially qualified and exclusively devoted teaching force was the crying need of modern education.

However, while the ideal very worthily and very properly inspired a progressive and hopeful ambition, it was "a condition, not a theory" which the American pioneer had to face; and wise was he when *he did the best he could*, let it fall ever so far short of his standard of *desired* excellence; yet, it was too often and too lamentably true that that same conservative builder of nations who, for two hundred years, had followed the winding calf-path, engrooving it deeper and deeper, and who had been taught the horn-book, the psalter, and the "double rule of three" by the superannuated preacher, the briefless lawyer, and the indentured servant, very easily enjoined his judgment and acquitted his conscience by affording his child the same opportunities which had been his own.

But, as in the biological world there is an unseen agency which has to do with determining "the fittest of the fit," so with that infant democracy which would preserve itself against the crash of either the ensanguine or commercial aggression of hoary-headed monarchy, there must be wise men in the lead—men who can at once discern their own weakness and reenforce against it. Such men were, in time, to the front, and valiantly. The Tells and Winkelrieds of peace are no less glorious than are those of war, though oft' times less applauded and less commemorated. The unpsychological psychology, the unphilosophical philosophy, and the crude doctrines of seventy-five years ago may not stand the test of measurement by the standard of technical nomenclature and abstruse phraseology in which our "modern" science of education is so often writ; but, throughout the ages, which are yet to be recorded, he will strive in vain who would bedim the memory of a Cheever or a Bell or an S. R. Hall or a Mann or a Barnard or a Baldwin or a Sheldon or any other of a dozen more, though they may never have heard or delivered the dictum that "for every neurosis there is a psychosis and for every psychosis there is a neurosis."

It was a great age in which those men lived, and yet, it was not so long ago. It was the age of the frontier and the Indian, of the unblazed "aisle of the dim woods" and the path-finder, of the tallow-candle and the sewing needle, of the mowing blade and the cradle, of the ox-yoke and the "wooden-ax," of the goose-quill and the handpress, of the fortnight post and the unharnessed fire of the skies. That was the age which called for men of strong frame and back-bone and gray matter and rich red blood and warm heart and fearless eye. Such men there were. Some of them have just been named; and they are the men who taught the men who have made this land of ours the envy of the nations. And these are the men who first called upon the academies to become "what it has always been desirable that they should be, fit seminaries for imparting instruction in the highest branches of English education, and especially for qualifying teachers of the common schools."

These are the men who gave us the normal school and the teachers institute—the latter for the purpose of bringing all teachers into closer touch with one another in their common interests, of giving them a more comprehensive view of the real meaning of education, and of inspiring and helping the unprepared to approximate a degree of efficiency, and the former for the purpose of selecting and preparing men and women who wished to devote their lives to the cause of education. It is interesting to note that the first institute was held and the first two public normal schools were established in the same year (1839). The public normal was the legitimate outgrowth of the private normal which, within the range of its possibilities, had served a noble purpose.

From the first, the function or purpose of the normal school was definite. It was to prepare teachers for the common, or elementary schools; and, in this field, it has held undisputed sway. It was hoped that the work done in the academic subjects should be parallel with and somewhat in advance of that done in the common schools and that it should be accomplished even more thoroughly, if possible, than it was in the common schools; such courses in the history, the principles, philosophy, and psychology of education as the immature minds and immature scholarship of students made it possible for them grasp were to be given; and, by sytsematic observation and practice, the most rational and psychological methods of instruction were to be established and exemplified. There are today, a large number of state and a large number of private normal schools in the United States. (It is sad to state, that among these latter, there is a no small number of nickle-in-the-slot machines which press the button and turn out teachers while you wait). Briefly, such was the origin, such has been the growth, and such is still the work of the normal school; and the more of such work it does *thoroughly*, the more it will find to do.

However, with the improvement and the upbuilding of the common schools, with the rapid transit which has brought all men face to face with and into a common knowledge of the business and needs of all men, with the ever-increasing barter of brawn for brain and brain for brawn in the industrial marts of life, with the rapid specialization which has marked the vocational and avocational activities during the past quarter of a century, with the scientific investigations which have been constantly increasing into the real nature and possibilities of human energy during the same length of time, and with the persistent demand which is becoming more and more rationally imperative and more and more widespread even to a degree little short of universality that the teaching force furnish specialists among its men and women who are academically, scientifically, and professionally qualified to educate and direct the youth of the land in such manner as to prepare them for the greatest possible enjoyment and efficiency in the differentiating lines of human activity, the problem of education has outgrown its original measure and has become more complicated because of new factors involved. But the solution has not been difficult. With an established confidence in the stability and efficiency of the common schools, with a closer and closer scientific investigation of the every-day life of the people, with a greater and greater popularizing of university thought and doctrine, the old-time academy and seminary have been merged into and have been absorbed by the public high school, the college of the people; and the college of the people is to become the training-place where ungrown men and women in the making are led into a knowledge of themselves, of life, of society, of their possibilities and their duties. It is here that a large majority will either tentatively or finally find their careers in life more or less predetermined. But the high school must have teachers; and the normal school must have teachers;—all not only "to the manor born," but for the work, prepared.

Thus, was the coming of the teachers' college inevitable. Born of necessity, the result of sequential development, and the product of careful organization, it was never an experiment. It was a success from the start. It was preceded by university departments of education and university normal schools; but, as an institution, it is new. Teachers' College of Columbia University, the greatest teachers' college in the world, was established, as such, only twenty-four years ago; and yet, so rapidly has it grown, that two years ago, the approved budget of that one school was nearly $700,000.00. But as every innovation has to prove its right to be, so had the teachers' college. It had its secret and its open enemies and its scoffers, its sceptics and its repudiators; but so had the steam-boat, the telegraph, and the telephone, so had the chemical, physical, and biological laboratories; in fact, it wasn't so long ago when one of the greatest institutions in our country had its "professor of science," and only the other day, a member of that same faculty, the most self-exploiting psychologist in America, sneered at the work of his worthy colleague in education. In almost every instance where the teachers' college has been established, it has had to fight for its life. Too many university professors and teachers in the public schools have regarded it as a standing and unwarranted criticism of themselves and have treated it, if not with open hostility, at least with pronounced indifference. Such has been the history of every college subject added to the "Beneficial Arts."

As an evidence of the fact that the teachers college did prove its right to be, witness the fact that either as a "department of education" or as a teachers' college, it has found its way into the permanent organization of nearly every state university and into a large majority of private universities and colleges. In thus proving its right to be, such college has already become permanent, influential and powerful for good in many of the great universities of the land. Seven years ago, Louisiana took a step in the right direction when she established the department of education; and two years later, she took a long stride when she expanded the department into Teachers' College and threw wide open the doors of the University to ladies who, until then, had been "special students in education." So firmly intrenched in the hearts of the people has the College become as to justify the largest and most comprehensive organization possible.

The tremendous strides being taken along lines of educational expansion within the State, the consolidation of school districts, the erection of splendid houses capable of accommodating from a few to many grades, the ever increasing tendency toward departmental, industrial, and vocational instruction, the greater necessity and demands for better supervision and administration, and the unceasing inquiries which the patronizing and supporting public is making into the workings and fruitage of the general educational system all combine to demand of the University that she send into the field the best specialists, supervisors, and superintendents possible.

Young ladies and gentlemen who intend to make teaching a profession, a life-work, are asking in no mistaken terms that the University make it possible for them to meet the exactions of a school-loving public and, better still, to *grow* to the highest standard of efficiency possible by properly equipping themselves for their work; and owing to an increasing tenure in position and to a better salary, such aspirants for higher attainments are being multiplied yearly; and their number must become all the greater as opportunity and demands become greater.

Teachers' College, then, should be organized upon such a basis as to afford prospective teachers the most thorough and the most comprehensive preparation for their work possible; and at the same time, it should afford an equal opportunity for intensive work for those who may be able and who may wish to specialize in given subjects. Such preparation will group itself under three heads: Academic, economic, and professional.

Academic preparation involves a reasonably satisfactory knowledge of languages; of history, sociology, the economic and political sciences; of philosophy and psychology; of mathematics; and of the physical and biological sciences as to insure at least a cultural knowledge of all and a proficient or working knowledge of some. Along all of these lines, the University is unusually well equipped.

Economic preparation involves the foregoing, and, in addition, a knowledge of some one or more of the following: Agriculture, mechanical engineering, mechanic arts, electrical engineering, civil engineering, sugar engineering, etc. For the work being done in all of these subjects, the University is reputedly the envy of many of her sister institutions. In addition to the foregoing economic subjects, courses in domestic science, such as cooking, sewing, household economy, etc.; arts and crafts for those who may wish such phases of manual training as should be used in the lower grades and which may, at the same time, lead to the work of the mechanic arts and to the laboratory work in the departments of science; music, as a means of organization, emotional culture, and refinement can not be offered too soon. These things go far toward meterializing culture, socializing science, and refining the bread and butter side of life. History is writ large with deeds of valor, patriotism, and self-sacrifice in defense of the home; and in no other way is the progress of civilization so easily traced as in the democratizing of the fireside: yet, it has been left for the last decade to witness anything like a concerted effort to balance and level up the work of the farm and the shop with that of the counting-room and the office, to exalt and refine domestic efficiency along the accomplishments of the drawing-room. Slowly, but surely, the conviction has been strengthening itself in the minds of men that the education of man must be measured by a high standard of social efficiency in the true and the noblest sense of the word; and today the time is at hand for competent men and women to properly equip themselves for this enlarging scope and widening sphere of the teacher's life. The prestige of political appointment, the ambiguity of multiplied words, and the assurance of authority may deceive for a season; but he whose sinecure is established upon no firmer basis shall sooner or later, find himself superseded by the man who has been wise enough to qualify himself before undertaking so great a work. To just such preparation of supervisors, principals, specialists, to just such educational evaluation, Teachers' College must now and hereafter stand committed.

No, the doctrine is not new though its exemplification is. They who go about the country preaching "industrial education as a new doctrine" mistake the origin of their knowledge, the source of their inspiration, or the meaning of the term. It has been the burden of many a song for a quarter of a century while some sang it a hundred years ago. The fact is that we are just getting ready to do what we have known that we ought to do, but which we could not for obvious reasons; but the time is ripe, and it behooves us to do the thing which is now at hand. Leaders and legislatures have made and are making provisions for it; and the public is supporting and using and even demanding it. The greatest opportunity in the history of the world is now presenting itself for the exemplification of the real meaning of education.

Professional preparation involves a knowledge of the psychology of individual development and group activities and a philosophy of instruction and organization; of the history of education as showing how divergent interpretations of life have resulted in such strikingly unlike peoples and how the experience of the ages has worked persistent modifications in a given people; of a critical study of present-day activities in the matter of maintenance, administration, supervision, organization, and development; and of such a knowledge of systematic and scientific analysis and construction as shall enable the individual to so study a given subject or problem as to enable him to arrive at a justifiable conclusion, be that conclusion ever so new or radical.

In addition to the foregoing, it should be said that no professional department, school, or college, is complete which does not offer abundant opportunity for demonstration, observation, and exemplification. People who are to teach, should see the best of teaching done in the same grades, if possible, in which they wish to teach; and they should be required and should have opportunity to exemplify their knowledge of subjects to be taught and their ability to apply the underlying principles of instruction to whatever methods either they or others may adopt. Such requirements may be met only by a *demonstration school*; and no eductional department or teachers' college is complete without it. This doesn't mean that the mere presence of a "training school" exalts one institution over another without it. Superficial knowledge and stereotyped methods can never atone for lack of thoroughness and an understanding of principles. However, all things else being equal, that Teachers' College having its training school has a great advantage.

The munificient endowment of $40,000.00 by the Peabody Education Board, for the erection of a building for the Teachers' College of the Louisiana State University makes it possible, if everything else is done which should be done within the premises and the requirements, for Teachers' College to meet every provision discussed in this article. Class-rooms, a lecture hall, study halls, libraries, psychological laboratories, laboratories for such subjects as cooking, sewing, arts and crafts, etc., may all be provided and equipped in such manner as to afford the institution every opportunity and facility for illustrating just what an academic, economic, and professional education should be and mean to the professional teacher: and at the same time, it will afford the student equal opportunity for illustrating just what he has got and is getting out of his course and what he can do with it when once he is called to the work for which he is qualifying himself. In a word, the endowment made by the Peabody Board together with the consequent annual appropriation, necessary to secure it, should assure unto the boards of education and the public of Louisiana such superintendents, principals, supervisors, specialists, and other high school and normal school teachers as shall keep the school system of the State forever to the fore-front of educational progress.

THE PLACE AND FUNCTION OF THE TACHERS COLLEGE

By D. T. POWERS
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In the evolution of human society, organized education is a fundamental factor. Educational progress is inevitably conditioned by school efficiency, and school efficiency, in turn, rests mainly upon the effectiveness of the teaching and administrative forces. The rapid growth of our public school system, and the unparalleled spread of high schools of every type especially, are making an ever-increasing demand for more and better public school workers. The wide spread educational activity is but the natural manifestation of a deep-felt need for better professional and vocational equipment, for increased health and happiness, for a more vital citizenship and for a larger participation in the worthwhile things of life. It is the characteristic expression of American life. To provide facilities for the professional equipment of teachers, supervisors, and school administrators is not only a paramount duty of the state but it is the crowning feature of educational achievement. To these ends, therefore, teachers colleges have been established.

That the professional training of teachers greatly increase their efficiency is a well established fact. The moss-grown notions about "born teachers" and about "the all-sufficiency of mere academic knowledge" do not accord either with wide experience or sound judgment in school matters, and they have consequently passed to the junk heap of dreams along with the "doctrine of the elect" and "the philosopher's stone." The history of professional progress is proving more and more clearly that inspiration is mightily akin to perspiration. The inspired teachers of the world have been devout students of human nature, of the law, of ideals and, in many cases, inventors of schools of pedagogy. Go to any nation, state or city, that is conspicuous for educational leadership and there you will find machinery for the training of teachers at its best and working overtime. Such a training develops a spirit of craftsmanship that goes far towards creating an educational consciousness. The saving minority of trained teachers in this country have manifested a spirit of co-operation and enthusiasm hitherto unknown and they have met the constantly growing standards for higher efficiency and nobler ideals with a forgetfulness of self little less than heroic.

While the normal idea of training dates back well nigh two centuries, our present conception of training high school teachers had its beginning in the "teachers seminaries" of Germany about one hundred years ago. Three quarters of a century ago, however, not a single course in educational theory had ever been given in this country.

Beginning with the whole-souled devotion and masterful statesmanship of Horace Mann, the United States has witnessed in the last forty years a professional development among teachers unequaled by the progress of any other profession. While conditions are still far from what they ought to be, growth has been qualitative no less than quantitative. Education today is not only a university subject of study, in the strictest sense of the term, but it has become a career worthy of the best gifts.

The standard that elementary teachers of the first rank must be graduates of the best normal schools is already fixed. That high school teachers must be something more than college graduates is a wide-spread conviction. Still a large per cent. of graduates from the department of liberal arts go out from our colleges and universities to plague the smaller high school by teaching for a time, at least, without professional training of any sort. Not infrequently, they engage to teach subjects which they have never studied in college. Manifest conditions now point to the fact, that the standards of professional training and efficiency, exacted of elementary teachers, are now being demanded of secondary teachers. It does not take a prophet to glimpse the time, when the college professor who presents merely an academic equipment, will be regarded as only half prepared for his work.

In a somewhat recent report 269 colleges and universities are mentioned as giving pedagogical courses. In about one half of this number, one professor, at least, devotes his entire time to educational subjects, while in a score there are well organized faculties that offer a wide range of courses in both under-graduate and graduate work. The departments are variously designated as teachers colleges, or as schools or departments of education. In some instances, the departments of education are co-ordinate with other departments in the college of liberal arts; in other cases, they have become integral parts of the depatrments of philosophy or psychology; in a few instances, they have absorbed these departments. But the most notable type is the teachers college, which stands on an equal footing with the school of engineering or of law. The teachers college is the direct outgrowth of educational forces now active, and not the least of the burdens resting upon it is the training of educators and special teachers for service in the trying work of our educational reconstruction.

Broadly speaking, the work of the teachers college is the study of the school as an institution, and as such, education touches life in more vital places, perhaps, than does any other form of institutional activity. There are the perplexing problems of financial administration, the sides of mechanism and management, the academic and professional equipment of teachers, supervision and the means and methods of instruction, the treatment of delinquents, and defectives, schemes for publicity, types of training and the solution of the numberless problems that go to make for health, proficiency and service in school activities.

While in the leading teachers colleges the requirements are fairly uniform, there is on the whole, a wide range of courses offered. The manifest intention is to give a thorough groundwork in academic subjects, followed by professional courses in the junior and senior years. But in institutions that grant a Teachers' diploma along with the Bachelor's degree, academic courses of three and two years in major and minor subjects respectively are usually required, while the professional courses exacted amount to about one sixth of the work required for graduation. As a general policy, courses are freely offered to those who are qualified to profit by them. In a study made by Dexter, the courses given were distributed as follows: courses in the philosophy, principles and history of education; courses in experimental and applied psychology; in school administration, organization and management; in school hygiene and school legislation, and courses in methods of instruction, observation and practice.

It is by no means definitely known how much academic matter is required to equip a good high school teacher. but that he should have a unique and professional grasp of th esubjects he would teach is not doubted by anyone of school experieece. Intellectual prodigies are proverbially lacking in teaching power. To know subjects is not enough, the teacher must know them as teaching tools. He must not only know the facts as organically related and as independent of the text-books, but he must be able to evaluate them in relation to other subjects in the course of study and know the best ways and means of developing these subjects in terms of the unfolding processes of the learning minds.

The teaching facts of a subject need not include all the details ascribed to it by tradition but should emphasize only such facts and groups of facts as will function in the actual and probable lives of the pupils. Nothing is to be retained for the mere sake of its antiquity nor is it to be rejected because it is new. Both in the matter and method of our secondary education, there is an unquestioned lack of motor training, of industrial and applied intelligence. The acquisition of pure and impersonal knowledge belongs to a later period of development.

But most of all the teacher needs definite knowledge concerning the working capacities, the interests, ambitions and capabilities of the individual pupils whom he teaches and is likely to teach. Shoveling facts out of the bins of much learning into the brain pans of young people hardly accords with the standards of modern pedagogy. In teaching subjects, teachers too often fail to develop the alert mind, the ability to judge, to appreciate or to make for real citizenship. To properly equip high school and special teachers demands the close and ardent co-operation of academic and professional departments.

At the introduction of professional courses into the regular college work, there was a feeling that this might weaken the standing of the A. B. Degree but such has not proved to be the case. The registration in teachers colleges has not only increased wonderfully but high school teachers have been stimulated to take graduate work as they never have done before. It is to be expected that professional motives would vitalize in the academic work deemed necessary to success. In most cases special courses in methods of instruction are given by the heads of departments or by professors especially equipped for the work. With the present clamor for professionally trained secondary teachers of college grade, it is now up to the colleges and universities to supply the demand. Already six states have normal schools of established college rank. To my mind this is not in keeping with the best interests of our secondary schools, still there is little grounds for thinking that it will abate.

The specific function of the teachers college, however, is to professionalize prospective teachers of secondary and higher grades; to transform capabilities and inexperience into the features of the master workman. The induction of inexperienced teachers into the complex difficulties of actual practice is the one problem hardest to solve. The laboratory is the workshop of modern science. Pedagogy is the science of education. Therefore, the training schools in connection with teachers colleges serve as teaching laboratories, and as such fulfill three distinct functions, namely, exemplification, practice and research.

As observation and practice schools, they should conform as nearly as possible to the conditions that exist in the best schools. Here every teaching act is made significant and the best in modern theory and practice should be daily exemplified at the hands of tried and skillful teachers. Here student-teachers are given lasting impressions of the workings of the high school as an organic part of a great system. Here they are taught to interpret school phenomena, to judge, plan and appreciate. Teachers are apt to teach as they have been taught, regardless of the fearful cost, unless they are made to know what effective teaching means and are habituated in the proper methods of testing results. In teaching the young idea how to shoot, the gorged college graduate, not in frequently, teaches him how to be shot. Student-teachers must be taught to respect the laws of the learning process. In the hands of the ideal teacher, knowledge is always a tool, never an end in itself. The consummation of the whole matter, then, is to enable teachers to size up situations as they are, accept them at their pedagogical worth and so direct and apply agencies of growth as to cause pupils to become what they ought to be. Through practice and substitute teaching, under standard conditions, the student-teacher is made conscious of the real nature of his chosen work; he learns the vital relationships of mind, matter and method. Problems of instruction and management are brought home to him and he realizes their significance in terms of his own efforts and emotional responses. He gains power, poise and efficiency. He passes inspection and proves his ability to wear and wash as every decent product should.

The amount of observation and practice work varies with conditions but in all schools, issuing state certificates, the quantity and character of the work done by all candidates must be such as to give assurance of reasonable success under normal conditions. By special arrangement with the authorities outside of the universities many teachers colleges are extending their observation work and probationary teaching to the public high schools in adjacent cities. This not only affords the best means of training, testing and maturing teachers, but it protects pupils from the blunders of inexperience and chance selection.

As research and experimental laboratories, these training schools are rendering additional service. In the progress of many of the industrial arts, the work of the laboratory is now held to be indispensable. In an important sense, the same is true of education. Experimental pedagogy stands very much in the same relation to public school efficiency as does the work of the experiment station to scientific farming. In the observation and practice work, the object is to give judgment and skill in the application of known educational principles to the teaching process, but in the experimental school, the object is to try out theory and enrich practice. Here every pedagogical creed must justify itself in living results. Here popular fads and fancies must stand the acid test of trial before introduction into general practice. This work, however, calls for the critical and searching attitude of the scientist plus the constructive touch of the artist. Many helpful studies have already been made but the problems awaiting investigation are limitless. The experimental and research work, which has been done by Clark, Columbia, Chicago and other universities, has not only greatly increased the school efficiency of the country, but has done much to place education upon a scientific basis, not to mention the work of Herbart, Rein, Ziller and Meumann in Europe.

The standards of service and efficiency of the state universities are every where being raised and extended to meet the state-wide needs for progress and development. The heroic past, the steady expansion and the growing prestige of the Louisiana State University speak for themselves. As an organic member of her group of professional schools, Teachers College is destined to fulfill a unique and urgent need in the development of the educational resources of the State. While the specific work of Teachers College is to equip high school teachers, specialists, principals and superintendents for effective service, her whole duty is to make for a state-wide enthusiasm and efficiency in educational progress; to focus the best in applied knowledge upon the current problems of the state school system of which Teachers College is an integral part. Education must produce educators, lest the wheels of progress turn backwards with each successive generation. In the great scheme of educational advancement, no work is so important as the teaching of teachers and no place so fit as your own State University, where academic and professional departments, laboratories and libraries, associations and ideals combine to give power, appreciation and service.

RELATION OF THE LIBRARY TO TEACHERS' COLLEGE

By INEZ MORTLAND
Librarian of Hill Memorial Library

A college library has functions so numerous and varied, depending on the conditions and aims of the institution with which it is connected, that a definite statement of what shall constitute its field of work is hardly possible. Librarians are agreed upon one point, however, that the library should provide for the professor of each department, all the material that he considers necessary to make his teaching effective. The library is his laboratory, to use an expression much in favor, each department equipped under the direction of the professor in charge, who, as a specialist in his subject, has a thorough knowledge of all its literature, and is particularly qualified to select the material which will meet the needs of his students. The college library cannot be expected to furnish an exhaustive supply of material on any subject, this function belonging rather to the highest institutions of learning, whose resources are available to the student engaged in research by a system of inter-library loan.

To particularize as to the position the library occupies in relation to Teachers' College, the head of the department sees to it that the library provides all the material needed for collateral reading and whatever research work required. To the library force is left the business of obtaining this material, making it available for use, and, most important of all, helping the student to make the best use of it. Undoubtedly as important as the reading itself is the training the student acquires in learning to use books intelligently. The library provides a catalogue of its contents, each volume entered under author, title, and subject, in dictionary fashion, each entry giving information as to the edition, its scope and contents, and date of publication. As a rule the student is obliged to consult this catalogue, in lieu of the books themselves, as access to the shelves cannot always be granted. There are certain general works of reference a knowledge of which is indispensable. He must know which of these is likely to contain the fullest and most reliable information on the subject under investigation; which have signed articles by qualified contributors; which are valuable on scientific subjects, or history or literature;

where he will find authoritative biographies of contemporaries as well as historic characters. There are encyclopaedias of special subjects, indexes to popular and technical magazines which are of great service. There are reading lists both of authors and of subjects which contain bibilographical details of value to the student who is ambitious to make a thorough study of the topic in hand. He must learn to discriminate among various editions of one author, choosing as a rule that one provided with a full index, which means a saving of time and labor.

Should he engage in teaching after completing his course he will find this library knowledge of immediate and practical service, particularly in Louisiana. Public libraries, which make it their policy to co-operate actively with the public schools, are not numerous here. Deprived of this aid the school is obliged to rely wholly on its own resources in the supplying of books, and with a small fund only to draw upon, works must be selected with extraordinary care, that the largest return may be had for money expended. His training in book values will enable him to choose wisely and meet successfully the requirements of the school. As a teacher he will find it an advantage to become identified with the local or national library association, which is constantly publishing select lists of books on useful subjects, for special school days, for debates, and the like, besides offering many suggestions useful to librarians and school men.

What has been said of the library in its connection with Teachers' College is equally true regarding other departments. Perhaps this department covers a broader field than the other departments since it includes with more or less comprehensiveness nearly verey branch of learning. It covers the whole range of philosophy and philosophic systems, ancient and modern, with the inclusive subjects of metaphysics, logic, psychology and the closely allied subject of religion and theology. It includes sociology to some degree, economic conditions, social settlements, institutions for the afflicted, reformatories and penal institutions. Education itself is a tremendous field, and includes much on language, literature and history. The practical subject of manual training brings it closely into relation with arts and crafts, mechanics, the chemistry of foods and cookery. Biology is another important subject belonging here, and physiology, and public and personal hygiene. This one department, fully equipped, would mean a collection of books of invaluable service to the whole academic department.

The library as a whole reflects to some degree the work in progress in the college. With every department represented by a carefully selected working collection of books, under a capable management, the college library will find its position firmly established as a fundamental part of the college, its work and influence widening and advancing with the growth and prestige of the institution itself.

RECENT EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS IN LOUISIANA

By THOMAS H. HARRIS
State Superintendent of Public Education

The purpose of this report is to give an outline of the various lines of activity which have engaged the attention of the public schools during the last year and a word concerning the progress made in each of these fields of educational endeavor. In a report so brief, it is necessary to omit much and to state without discussion the few facts that are given.

(1) Public School Sentiment: The people of Louisiana are vitally interested in their public schools and never fail to respond when called upon to improve their educational facilities. School houses are being built where needed, the school term is being lengthened, and funds are being voted for teachers' salaries, etc. All of these things the people do willingly. Very rarely does a man oppose any proposition which has for its object the improvement of the public schools.

(2) The Elementary Schools: The elementary schools were open last session a little more than eight months throughout the State. Generally speaking, these schools were taught by competent teachers. In response to a resolution of the State Board of Education limiting the grades that should be taught in schools of one, two, three, four teachers, etc., many of the parishes limited their one-teacher schools to five grades, the two-teacher schools to seven grades, the three-teacher schools to eight grades, etc., and made provision for assisting children needing instruction beyond that given by the schools of their communities to attend the nearest school offering the instruction required.

(3) There has been little or no increase in the number of high schools over that of the previous session. The State Board of Education has established high standards for its high schools in such matters as buildings, equipment, course of study, and teaching force. The aim has been to encourage schools to meet these standards rather than to increase the number of schools. There are 100 state approved high schools at this time and about forty others are applying for admission to the approved list. Each of these approved schools receives a special state appropriation of $500.

(4) Agriculture and Industrial Work: The general assembly of 1910 appropriated $25,000 a year for the encouragement of agricultural schools; 25 schools have been, during the past session, established, representing all sections of the State. These schools are required to have demonstration farms, trained teachers of agriculture, and the tools and implements needed for the agricultural work. Several of them have domestic science departments for the girls. Many other schools throughout the State have added domestic science departments and employed teachers trained along this line, and these schools have installed as much work as possible of this character. The Parish of Bienville has introduced domestic science work into fifteen of the schools and has employed a supervisor who directs the domestic science work in all of the fifteen schools mentioned above. Several thousand boys were enrolled in the corn clubs last session and more than one thousand in the pig clubs. Canning clubs were also organized in various parts of the State for the purpose of instructing the girls in the preservation of products that usually go to waste on the farm. These various industrial clubs had among the best exhibits at the State Fair recently held in Shreveport.

(5) The State Board of Health has been operating a Health Car over all the railroads of the State during the last year, giving lectures and demonstrations in the interest of public health. The State Department of Education kept a lecturer constantly with this car with the view of impressing teachers, children and the public with the importance of thorough cleanliness and sanitation about the schools and in the homes.

(6) Many country schools were consolidated during the session 1910-11. We have in the State more than 200 consolidated country schools and about three hundred school transfers which are used in transporting the children to these central institutions Our people realize that the consolidated school does much more efficient work than the one-teacher school, and consolidations are being made wherever the condition of the roads, the distance between schools, etc., will permit.

(7) The institute and summer school work has been highly satisfactory. The most of the parishes hold one-day institutes at the close of every school month and enroll in them the most of their teachers. A regular course of professional reading was pursued in these institutes. We held last summer five summer schools of nine weeks for the White teachers of the State and two summer schools of six weeks for the colored teachers. About 65

per cent of the white teachers of the State and about 50 per cent of the colored teachers attended the summer schools.

(8) All of the state institutions are making satisfactory progress. Practically all of them added new permanent buildings, had larger facilities and increased attendance. The State Normal School is now establishing a rural school department with the view of training teachers for country school work.

(9) The school census for 1911 gives 304,157 white children and 222,111 colored children making a total of 526,268 children in the State of school age. There were enrolled last session 200-000 white children and 90,000 colored children, making a total of 290,000 children enrolled in the public schools.

(10) Many permanent brick buildings were erected in the towns and cities and many frame buildings in the country districts. The funds for this purpose were realized as a rule from special taxes which the people voted upon themselves.

(11) The school revenues last session amounted to $5,596-349.34; male white teachers were paid $74.21 a month, and white female teachers $55.86 a month.

(12) Our parish superintendents were, generally speaking, well prepared for their work. The law requiring superintendents to pass an examination before they are eligible to hold the office of parish superintendent makes it almost impossible for an incompetent man to be employed in that office. The average salary of our parish superintendents is $1,505.25.

(13) The last legislature passed ten laws bearing upon the public schools. They were all in the interest of progress. Four of the most important were (*a*) a law simplyfing the machinery of holding special school tax elections and funding special taxes into bonds; (*b*) a law regulating institutes and summer schools; (*c*) a law regulating the adoption of text-books; and (*d*) a constitutional amendment requiring the police juries of all the parishes to appropriate as much as three mills of the parish taxes for public education.

The above is a bare skeleton of the work of the public schools of last session, but it will serve to give some idea of our efforts in the interest of the children of the State.

COLLEGE ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

By WALTER L. FLEMING
Professor of History, Louisiana State University
Secretary of the Committee on Classification

Bibliography. Those who desire to make a study of the problems involved in the articulation of the high school and college will find the following publications of value: Report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, July 1899, published by National Educational Association (copies may be obtained from Dr. Irwin Shepard, Winona, Minnesota); Document No. 53, College Entrance Examination Board, December 15, 1911 (Sub-station 84, New York City); Report of the Secondary Education Department of the N. E. A. on the Articulation of High School and College, July 11, 1911; Proceedings of the Associations of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of New England, of the Middle States and Maryland, of the North Central States, and of the Southern States. In regard to the admission requirements in particular subjects see the Reports of the National Conference on Uniform Entrance Requirements in English, of the American Historical Association Committee of Seven (1899) and Committee of Five (1911), of the American Philological Association (1909), of the Modern Language Association Committee of Twelve (1910), of the American Mathematical Society (1903), of the Science Department National Educational Association, of the American Society of Zoologists, and of the Joint Committee of the New England Education League and the Eastern Musical Conference; the University of Chicago New Program of Entrance Requirements (1911); Carnegie Foundation Reports and Bulletins. Specimen examinations may be obtained from Ginn and Company (for the College Entrance Examination Board), New York State Education Department (Regent's Examination), and the Secretary of the Association of Southern Colleges and Preparatory Schools, Vanderbilt University.

In recent years the tendency in higher education has been toward uniformity of college entrance requirements and more direct affiliation of the college with the high school. The school and college authorities have reached a general agreement that the four-year high school course is necessary as a foundation for college work. For purposes of administration the unit system of measuring high school work has been adopted. "A unit represents a year's study in any subject in a secondary school, constituting approximately a quarter of a full year's work." This standard of measurement "takes the four-year high school as a basis and assumes that the length of the school year is from thirty-six to forty weeks, that a period is from forty to sixty minutes in length, and that the study is pursued for four or five periods a week."

Since many institutions do not accept for admission all of the subjects taught in the various high school courses most of the better colleges and universities require fourteen or fifteen units for admission, not sixteen units, the full value of a four-year high school course. The fourteen or fifteen unit requirement also makes it possible for a high school student to omit one or two subjects from his course and yet enter college with no conditions. The unit standard of measurement is especially necessary for those institutions which admit by certificates; it is also a very convenient standard of measurement for those institutions which admit only by examinations. Practically all of the institutions which admit only by examination are in the East, the colleges and universities of the South and West generally accepting certificates.

Some of the most effective agencies working to obtain uniformity of college entrance requirements are the College Entrance Examination Board which conducts examinations for thirty of the leading institutions of the East, most of which admit only by examination; the New York State Education Department, (through the Regents' Examination); the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching; and the four associations of colleges and preparatory schools---the New England Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Middle States and Maryland, the Association of Colleges and Preparatory Schools of the Southern States, and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The principal object of the four associations is to secure, as to quantity, uniform terms of admission and the distinct separation of high school and college departments in the same institution. Colleges which are members of the associations must require at least fourteen units of high school work for admission without condition and if they have preparatory schools must make a distinct separation of teachers and students in the school departments from those of the college departments.

The institutions located in the wealthy and densely populated states of the East naturally led in the movement to advance the standard of admission requirements. These were followed by the colleges and universities of the Middle West and Far West while those of the Southern states, for a long time, lagged behind. This backwardness was due to the inadequate high school system in the sparsely populated and somewhat poverty stricken South. But the recent rapid industrial development in the South has been paralleled by a similar development of the public school system and now the colleges and high schools have found it possible to follow the example of those in more favored regions. The changes in the admission requirements at Louisiana State University may be taken as typical of the advancing standards of the Southern colleges and universities. The following table will show the entrance requirements for the past twelve years, the enrollment for each session, and the graduates at the close of each session. It will be noticed that the proportion of students of college grade slowly increases and that as the admission requirement is raised the proportion of graduates increases more rapidly.

Session.	Total.	Students in College Classes.	Graduates at end of session.	Admission requirements in units.
1900–1901	385	255	22	7
1901–1902	420	258	35	7
1902–1903	424	287	31	7
1903–1904	438	324	22	7
1904–1905	458	326	40	7½
1905–1906	464	344	33	7½
1906–1907	549	439	44	10
1907–1908	636	447	51	10
1908–1909	657	521	63	12
1909–1910	666	520	85	12
1910–1911	655	519	82	12
1911–1912	713	628		14

The above statistics do not include those of the summer school nor those of the Winter Course in Agriculture. The table of admission requirements indicates that the high school preparation required of candidates for admission to the freshman class has been doubled in quantity since 1903. The terms of admission have been based upon the preparation afforded by the state high school course. Therefore, the advanced admission requirements measure the progress of the high schools as well as of the University.

RULES GOVERNING CLASSIFICATION OF NEW STUDENTS LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY

Below are printed the principal rules governing the work of the Committee on Classification in estimating the value of examinations and certificates presented by candidates for admission to the Freshman class and to higher classes.

The University will credit for admission any high school subject properly taught; the principal subjects accepted for admission to the Freshman class of the University, with their value in units are as follows:

English, 3 units.
Algebra, 1½ units.
Geometry, Plane, 1 unit.
Geometry, Solid, ½ unit.
Trigonometry, ½ unit.
History, 1 to 3 units.
French, 1 to 3 units.
German, 1 to 3 units.
Spanish, 1 to 3 units.
Latin, Grammar, 1 unit.
Latin, Caesar, 1 unit.
Latin, Cicero, 1 unit.
Greek, 1 to 2 units.
Physical Geography, ½ to 1 unit.
Commercial Geography, ½ to 1unit.
Physics, ½ to 1 unit.
Chemistry. ½ to 1 unit.
Botany, ½ to 1 unit.
Agriculture, ½ to 2 units.
Zoology, ½ to 1 unit.
Physiology, ½ to 1 unit.
Civil Government, ½ to 1 unit.
Bookkeeping, ½ to 1 unit.
Stenography and Typewriting, ½ to 1 unit.
Shopwork, ½ to 1 unit.
Music, 1 to 2 units.
Drawing, freehand, ½ to 1 unit.
Drawing, mechanical, ½ to 1 unit.
Domestic Science, ½ to 2 units.

For admission to the College of Arts and Sciences, the Teachers College, the College of Engineering, the Audubon Sugar School, and the Law School, the candidate must offer fourteen units, selected from the above list, 7 1-2 of which are prescribed as follows: English, 3 units; Algebra, 1 1-2 units; Plane Geometry, 1 unit; History, 1 unit; a modern language, 1 unit. For a modern language, Latin or Greek may be substituted for admission to the College of Arts and Sciences and the Teachers College.

For admission to the College of Agriculture, fourteen units selected from the above list must be presented, including: English, 3 units; Algebra, 1 1-2 units; Plane Geometry, 1 unit; History, 1 unit.

Applicants not prepared to meet the full requirements may be admitted to any of the schools and colleges conditioned in not more than three units. Following are the general rules governing admission and classification:

CONDITIONS OF ADMISSION

1. For admission to the Freshman class a preparation valued at 14 units is required; a candidate for admission who presents 13 12, or 11 units may be admitted but must be conditioned in 1, 2,, or 3 units.

2. The 14 units of preparatory work must include: English, 3 units; Algebra, 1 1-2 units; Plane Geometry, 1 unit; History, 1 unit; a foreign language, ancient or modern, 1 unit (except for admission to the agricultural course). Elective subjects may be offered for the remainder of the 14 units.

3. No work credited for admission can again be credited by certificates or by examination, toward a degree.

4. Subjects in the high school course which are credited for

admission and which are also in the college course will be barred from the student's college course; and in place of a barred subject an elective may be substituted. Thus Solid Geometry (Mathematics 3) or elementary French, being credited for admission cannot again be taken for credit, the place of each in any course being taken by an elective.

5. The state high school course is valued at 14 units and no more.

The work of each grade is valued as follows:

First Year of High School, Eighth Grade	2 units
Second Year of High School, Ninth Grade	4 units
Third Year of High School, Tenth Grade	4 units
Fourth Year of High School, Eleventh Grade	4 units

6. A first grade teacher's certificate is worth 13 units and a holder of such a certificate may offer in addition Solid Geometry or a foreign language, these subjects not being included in the certificates. The subjects covered by the certificate are valued as follows: Education, 2 units; Algebra, 1 1-2 units; Physics, Plane Geometry, Physical Geography, History, Agriculture and Civics, 1 unit each; English, 3 units; Drawing, 1-2 unit Each "Special" examination in Music, Drawing, etc., is worth about 2 units.

7. A unit is the value attached to the work in one subject pursued for four or five hours a week for a school session. The work of the session or year cannot be valued on a certificate at more than four units. A recitation period should be at least 45 minutes in length. In estimating units both the subject element and the time element must be considered.

8. The Committee on Classification requires evidence of work done by the candidate for admission. This evidence may be supplied by examination or by diploma, certificate, class records, etc., or by examination and certificate combined. Examinations will not be given in subjects which have already been credited by certificates.

9. In the absence of official papers provisional classification may be granted in proper cases. But official papers must be supplied later. The registrar (or the Secretary of the Committee on Classification) will send for these papers. If official papers are not procured the student must take the examinations for admission.

10. The members of the Committee making the classification

will state fully, on the blank prepared for the purpose, the value in units of each subject in the applicant's preparatory course.

11. The blank forms provided for classification should be filled out in full by the classification officers.

The face of the classification paper should show, (1) the student's name, high school, college, etc., (2) the record of admission units, (3) the conditions imposed if any, (4) advanced credit if any, (5) subjects barred from the college course, e. g. Solid Geometry (Mathematics 3); (6) the student's course in the Freshman class.

12. A full record should be made of all units, even above 14, shown on certificates from high schools of higher grade than the approved state schools.

13. The classifying officer should make a class schedule for each student classified, being careful to distribute students evenly among the several sections of the lower classes.

14. Applicants for admission to the Law School should have their preparatory work valued by the Committee on Classification and then apply to the Secretary of the Law School for registration in the Law School.

The admission blanks of students entering the Law School should be returned to the registrar in order that he may be able to preserve the admission record of each student.

15. Senior academic students who take the first year law should have their law courses approved by the Secretary of the Law School and their academic courses approved by the Chairman of the Committee on Registration before registering.

16. A student credited with one admission unit in Modern Language may not take Modern Language 1-2; with two admission units may not take Modern Language 3-4; but if with three admission units he may take Modern Language 5-6.

17. The maximum number of hours for juniors and seniors is 17; for Freshmen and Sophomores is 19, military drill not included. Fractions in access will be allowed. Freshmen with entrance conditions may take 21 hours as a maximum.

This rule does not apply to those fixed courses which require more than the above maximum for any year.

CONDITIONS

18. A student may be admitted with one, two or three conditions.

19. If it is possible, conditions must be made up during

the first session. They must not be delayed beyond the second session.

20. Law students admitted with conditions may absolve them by taking elementary work during the summer school or in not more than one subject during each session.

21. Conditions are of two kinds:

(1). Conditions prerequisite to admission to the Freshman class, (*a*) as when a student lacks one, two or three, units of the necessary 14 required for unconditioned admission to the Freshman class, (*b*) when a student offers the number of units required for admission but lacks one or more of the prescribed subjects: English, foreign language, Algebra, Plane Geometry, or History.

(2.) Conditions prerequisite to entrance upon a certain course. For example, a year of modern language is required before undertaking a modern language of the Freshman class in the engineering courses, one year of Greek and three years of Latin are required before undertaking the first year college work in these subjects.

SPECIAL STUDENTS

22. Special students must be at least eighteen years of age and must be able to meet the minimum admission requirements of the freshman class, 11 units.

23. Special students who enter with less than 14 units should be urgently advised to make up the conditions. This, however, is not compulsory unless the student becomes a candidate for a degree.

24. Unless engaged in other work that occupies a large part of their time, special students must have at least 15 hours a week of recitation and some English study must be one of the subjects selected unless this requirement is waived by proper authority.

25. A student should not be encouraged to register as a special student but if possible should be classified in one of the regular courses.

ADVANCED STANDING

26. Graduates of the State Normal School are admitted to the Junior Class, College of Arts and Sciences or Teachers' College, with 32 credits as follows: English, 1-4, 6 hours; Latin 2, (Vergil), 2 1-2 hours; Mathematics 3, (Solid Geometry), 1 1-2 hours; Education and Psychology, 15 hours; Elective, 7 hours. Total 32 hours.

Graduates of Louisiana Industrial Institute are admitted to the junior class, College of Arts and Sciences or Teachers' College, with a credit of 34 hours. Graduates of the Louisiana Industrial Institute applying for admission to one of the technical courses should be referred to the Dean of the College of Engineering for classification. The credits allowed for work done in the above institutions are based upon the assumption that a high school graduate must spend two years at either institution before completing the course.

27. Graduates of other schools and colleges who are given advanced standing should be credited on the record with all work of college grade whether this can be used in their courses or not. For example, Greek should be credited on the record even if the student is taking an agricultural course. In case of change of course it will then not be necessary to reopen the record.

FRESHMAN CLASS 1911-1912, LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY

The following list contains the names of all students of Louisiana State University classed (January, 1912) as freshman for the session 1911-1912, the admission units credited to each and the number of conditions imposed on each student who did not present the full requirement for admission to the freshman class or to a particular course. There are two distinct divisions in the class: those who were admitted on the twelve-unit basis and those admitted under the fourteen-unit requirement. Until September, 1911, the high school preparation required for admission was valued at twelve units. The present freshman class contains fifty-six members registered under this requirement: some of them registered last year and failed to make promotion or resigned before the end of the session; others registered in the freshman class during previous sessions or during the summer sessions, a few of them registering as far back as 1907. Each freshman class contains many members who have registered in earlier sessions or in summer sessions and who return to complete their college courses. The remaining 165 members of the freshman class were admitted under the fourteen-unit requirement during the session of 1911-1912.

FRESHMEN ADMITTED UNDER TWELVE-UNIT REQUIREMENT

Name	School	Units	Condition
Bachemin, F. J.	Dixon Academy St. Joseph's Institute	12	1
Bates, J. W.	St. Vincent's Academy	10	2
Brooks, Miss E. O	Examination	12	½

Name	School	Units	Condition
Buck, T.	Evergreen High School	10	2
Dehon, I. H.	St. Joseph's Commercial Institute	11	1
Dickson, C. M.	St. Joseph's College, Centenary College	11	2
Fridge, C. R.	Examination	9	3
Fridge, M. D.	Baton Rouge High School, Exam.	10	2
Gahagan, W. K.	College City of New York	10	2
Griffing, W. R.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	10	2
Guell, S.	University of San Jose, Costa Rica	16	
Gulley, E. J.	Farmerville High School	12	
Harris, C. M.	La. Industrial Institute	11	1
Helgason, J. A.	St. Aloysius College ,Miss	12½	1
Hollingshead, C. C.	Evergreen High School	10	2
Jefferson, E. C.	La. Industrial Institute	11	1
Joffrion, R. R.	Examination	9	3
Jones, D. G.	Grand Cheniere High School First Grade Teacher's Certificate	12	
Klock, A. E.	Cheneyville High School	12	1
Krone, F. M.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	2
Land, D. T.	Shreveport High School	12	1
Lee, E. C.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	10½	1½
Lemon, Miss K. S.	State Normal School	14	
Loret, J. A.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	11	1
McCrory, G. B.	S. W. La. Industrial Institute	9	3
McEachern, J. A.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	11	1
McHenry, B. G.	La. Industrial Institute	12	1
McNeely, I. M.	Colfax High School	11	1
Montgomery, G. W.	Tallulah High School, Examination	9	3
Munson, J. J.	Centenary College, Examination	12	
Murphey, W. W.	Columbia High School	12	1
Norwood, G. M.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	10	2
Pearce, G. V.	Evergreen High School, L. S. U. Summer School	12	
Perkins, B. D.	Baywood High School	12	1
Phillips, W. A.	La. Industrial Institute, Examination	11	1
Pinero, J.	Baltimore Polytechnic Institute	12	
Pourciau, Miss N.	Poydras Academy, Examination	12	
Pugh, L. G.	St. John's College	10	2
Purnell, A. B.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	1
Quine, M. F.	L. S. U. Agricultural School, Exam.	11	1
Ramsey, J. G.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	10	2
Roger, W. L.	Thibodaux College	12	
Sandoz, P. L.	Moreauville High School, Exam.	11	1
Sevier, J. D.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	
Shumate, E. S.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	10½	1½
Smith, J. D.	St. Francisville High School	11	1
Stieb, E. R.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	11	1
Sumrall, L. O.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	9½	2½
Swart, Miss L.	Baton Rouge High School Randolph-Macon Woman's College	12	

Name	School	Units	Condition
Thorgeson, R. A	Morgan City High School	12	
Wade, F. M	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	
Watson, J. H	Roseland High School, Exams	12	1
Webre, J. B	L. S. U. Agricultural School	10½	1½
	Total		56

FRESHMEN ADMITTED UNDER FOURTEEN-UNIT REQUIREMENT

Name	School	Units	Condition
Adams, W. R	Jena High School	14	1
Addison. A. D	La. Industrial Institute	13	1
Albright, J. W	DeRidder High School	14	1
Alison, B. M	L. S. U. Agricultural School	13	1
Allen, A. L	Winnfield High School, L. S. U. Summer School 1st Grade Teacher's Certificate	14	
Applebaum, M	Lecompte High School	14	
Arroyo, R	University of Porto Rico	14	
Atkins, Miss E. M	Arcadia High School	14	
Babb, P	La. Industrial Institute	12	2
Badley, Miss D	Home Institute	13	1
Bailie, W. A	St. John's College	14	
Barbee, W. A	L. S. U. Agricultural School	14	
Barthelemey, L. J	L. S. U. Agricultural School	13	1
Basler, Miss E. H	Goteborg Gymnasium, Sweden	14	
Beatrous, F. T	St. Joseph's Institute, Donaldsonville	14	1
Benero, F	Allen School, West Newton, Mass	12	2
Bergeron, L. A	Whitehall High School	13	1
Bilbo, M. M	DeRidder High School	14	
Blake, V. B	Olla High School	12	2
Bolin, D. C	Doyline High School	14	1
Bolin, R. D	Haynesville High School	13½	1
Boote, C. L	Donaldsonville High School	14	1
Boyd, H. C	Baton Rouge High School	14	
Broussard, P. L	Abbeville High School	14	
Bruner, J. C	L. S. U. Agricultural School	14	
Burleigh , E. G	S. W. La. Industrial Institute	13	1
Bush, H. F	St. Paul's School, New York	13	1
Cabell, Miss E	Paducah (Ky.) High School	15½	
Caldwell, J. W	Washington and Lee University	13	1
Caldwell, T. J	Plain Dealing High School	13½	1
Capdevielle, Miss A	Baton Rouge High School	14	
Cary, E. A	L. S. U. Agricultural School	14	
Castro, J. M	Belen High School, Havana	14	
Cervantes, J. H	Chenet's Institute, New Orleans	14½	
Christman, Miss E	Crowley High School	14	
Churchill, C. S	Sewanee Military Academy	13	1
Clark, G. J	Chamberlain-Hunt Academy	13	1
Collins, W. W	Verda High School	14	
Colon, F	Ponce High School (P. R.)	14	

Name	School	Units	Condition
Connely, A. W	L. S. U. Agricultural School	11½	2½
Coons, Miss H. C	Baton Rouge High School	14	
Coronel, M. S	Chenet's Institute, New Orleans	14	
Crawford, J. E	Bienville High School	13½	1
Davilla ,L	Bayamon High School (P. R.)	14	
Dawson, O. H	Haynesville High School	13½	½
Devall, B. C	Baton Rouge High School	13	1
Dillard, W. T	L. S. U. Agricultural School	13	1
Dixon, S. H	Oak Grove High School	14	
Dowling, J. W	Eufaula (Ala.) High School	14	
Dunn, S. E	Spring Hill High School	14	
Dupont, C. I	Plaquemine High School Competitive Scholarship Examination	12½	2
Dupont, J. M	Phillip's Academy, Mass	14	
Dykes, H. E	Kentwood High School	13½	1
Eatman, P. W	Grand Cane High School	14	
Egerton, C. E	Coushatta High School	14	
Everett, G. C	Everett Institute, First Grade Teachers Certificate	14	
Favrot, G. K	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	2
Favrot, H. M	New Orleans High School	14	1
Feehan, J. H	West Texas Military Academy Allen Academy, Texas	14	
Ford, C	Leesville High School	13	1
Fridge, Miss P	Baton Rouge High School	11	3
Galdo, A. R	Guilford College, (N.C.)	13½	1
Galloway, E	Vivian High School, Exam	11	3
Garland, D. H	Bernice High School	14	
Glynn, Miss M. W	St. Mary's Dominican College	14½	
Gosserand, M. A	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	2
Gosserand, M. L	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12½	1½
Guedan, M	Jefferson Military Academy	13	1
Hamilton, R. B	Tome Institute, (Md.)	11	3
Hartman, L	Farmerville High School	14	
Hawkins, A. M	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	2½
Haynes, M. J	Verda High School	14	
Hebert, E. B	L. S. U. Agricultural School	14	
Heiderich, Miss S	Boyce High School	14	
Herrera, J	Culver Military Academy	11	3
Heydrich, A. L	Ashville, (N. C.) High School	15	
Hogue, L. L	Haynesville High School	14	
Holden, S	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	2
Houeye, E. E	Amite High School	11	3
Howell, F. A	Baton Rouge High School	13	1
Hudson, H. W	Haynesville High School	14	
Hudson, R. D	L. S U. Agricultural School	14	2
Hummel, Miss K	Baton Rouge High School	14	
Irwin, J. T	Clinton High School	14	
Isreal, Miss D	Baton Rouge High School	13	1

Name	School	Units	Condition
Johnston, J. B.	Centenary College	14	
Kerwin. L. E.	Lorton Preparatory School	14	
Killgore, Miss P.	Baton Rouge High School	13	1
Kilpatrick, D. P.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	13	1
King, H. B.	Preparatory School, New Iberia	13	1
Kyes, O. S.	Clinton High School	14	1
Laborde, F. L.	Mansura High School	14	
Lanier, E. M.	Napoleonville High School	14	
Latil, Miss Ida M.	Baton Rouge High School	14	
Lopez, A. C.	Y. M. C. A. Preparatory School, Brooklyn	11	3
Lowry, E. B.	Colby Academy, (New Hampshire)	11	3
Lucky, L. B.	Bienville High School	14	
Lucky, S. G.	Bienville High School	14	
Luikart, C. B.	Omaha High School, Iowa State College	13	1
McCollister, E. P.	Merryville High School	15	
McHugh, Miss I.	St. Joseph's, New Orleans	13	1
McMahon, P. J.	New Iberia High School	11	3
Margarida, F.	University of Pennsylvania	14	
Margarida, J.	Normal, West Chester, Pa.	14	
Marmande, H. J.	S. W. La. Industrial Institute and Houma High School	11	3
Martin, W. L.	Napoleonville High School	14	
Mary, Miss L.	St. Joseph's Academy, Brusly	13	1
Masson, M. M.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	14	
Mays, J. R.	Baton Rouge High School	14	
Means, L. M.	Culver Military Academy	14	
Medlenka, L. M.	La. Industrial Institute	13	1
Mendez, R. C.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	11	1
Merritt, M. M.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	13	1
Mobley, T. R.	Coushatta High School, Examination,.	12	2
Moncure, Miss E.	Shreveport High School	15	
Monget, Miss B.	Baton Rouge High School	13	1
Montano, M.	Porto Rico Normal School	14	
Moran, Miss S.	Baton Rouge High School	13	1
Morgan, D. D.	Chesbrough High School, Examination	13	1
Mosley, D. L.	Athens High School	14	1
Munson, M. W.	Pascagoula High School, Miss.	14	1
Murphey, T. L.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	2
Nadler, A.	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	2
Ortiz, M.	Ponce High School. (P. R.)	14	
Puckett, Miss A.	State Normal School	14½	
Penick, W. E.	Tome Institute (Md.)	13	1
Phillips, Miss A.	Baton Rouge High School Newcomb College	14	
Porter, H. L.	Vivian High School, Examination	12	2
Pratt, J. L.	Bernice High School	14	
Querbes, R.	St. John's College	14	
Quine, Miss M. M.	Examination	11½	2½

Name	School	Units	Condition
Richard, J. W	L. S. U. Agricultural School	12	2
Robertson, Miss F	Baton Rouge High School	14	
Rola, E. C	Moczo College, (P. R.)	13	1
Ross, A. L	Bastrop High School	13½	1
Rountree, W. L	Vidalia High School	13½	1
Roy, K. L	Mansura High School	14	
Rozas, J	Ville Platte High School, Competitive Scholarship Examination	12	2
Scott, T. A	Winnsboro High School	14	
Scott, W. M	Castle Heights High School, (Tenn.)	12	2
Sentell, S. E	La. Industrial Institute	13	1
Slack, T	Tallulah High School	14	
Smith, W. F	Norwood High School	13	1
Spencer, G. B	La. Industrial Institute	14	
Staples, W. S	La. Industrial Institute	14	
Stewart, F	Centenary College	12	2
Tate, A	Eunice High School	13½	1
Thigpen, T. C	Oakdale High School	13½	1
Troxler, A	Jefferson College	12	2
Vela, J. M	Chenet Institute	14	
Vidrine, G. C	Oakdale High School	14	1
Vidrine, J. B	Grand Prairie High School	14	
Wade, W. T	Hazlehurst High School, (Miss.)	14	1
Walden, H. E	Bunkie High School	14	
Walet, P. H	State Normal School	14	
Walsh, S. P	L. S. U. Agricultural School	11	3
Ward, G. L	Farmerville High School	14	1
Warmoth, Miss W	Baton Rouge High School	14	
Wharton, W. L	Baton Rouge High School	13	1
Whitaker, Miss R	Baton Rouge High School	14	
Wilkinson, W. S	Shreveport High School	12	
Wilson, W. A	Ludington High School, Examination	11	3
Woodring, D. W	Lake Charles High School	13	1
Yantis, S. C	Welsh High School	14	
Yelldell, L. A	Mer Rouge High School	14	
	Total		165

SPECIAL STUDENTS ADMITTED 1911-1912

Holmes, R. H	Syracuse Universyti
Hooper, Mrs. Pearl S	Higbee College, (Tenn).
Latil, Miss L	Baton Rouge High School
Lucas, D. R	Ontario High School
Mahoney, Mrs. J. C	Mary Datchelor College, London
Moore, Mrs. E. R	Sioux City High School, (Iowa)
Robbins, H. W	Ohio State University
Strickland, Mrs. H. K	Amite High School
Timpson, L. G	Lehigh University
Watson, M. I. W	Glasgow Technical College, Scotland
Pujol, Miss I. B	St. Joseph's Academy

STUDENTS ADMITTED TO ADVANCED STANDING, 1911-1912
LOUISIANA STATE UNIVERSITY

Name	Institution	Class
Hart, Miss N	Sacred Heart Academy L. S. U. Summer School	Senior
Hulsart, Miss V	Michigan State Normal School L. S. U. Summer School	Senior
Arbuthnot, Miss E	Silliman College L. S. U. Summer School	Junior
Capdevielle, Miss B	Louisiana State Normal School	Junior
Gray, Miss A	Randolph-Macon Woman's College	Junior
Jova J. M	Randolph-Macon College Maryland Agricultural College	Junior
Golson, F. K	Louisiana State Normal School L. S. U. Summer School	Junior
Martel, A. A	Springhill College	Sophomore
Sprout, Miss B	Michigan State Normal School L. S. U. Summer School	Junior
Steece, H. M	University of Arkansas	Junior
Warlick, A. W	Centenary College	Junior
Acosta, A	Penn. State College	Sophomore
Acosta, J	Penn. State College	Sophomore
Baldridge, G B	Meridian College Examination	Sophomore
Castillo, B	University of Porto Rico	Sophomore
Colon, E. D	University of Porto Rico	Sophomore
Gunderson, W. G	University of Wisconsin	Sophomore
Herrera, M. M	University of Louvain, (Belgium)	Sophomore
Himes, Miss K	La. State Normal School	Sophomore
Lewis, C. H	Louisiana Industrial Institute L. S. U. Summer School	Sophomore
Spencer, B. J	Pratt Institute	Junior
Miller, Miss M. M	University of Denver	Sophomore
Moore, B. L	S. W. Louisiana Industrial Institute Examination	Sophomore
Scott, H. W	Royal College of Mauritius	Sophomore
Smith, J. M	Centenary College	Sophomore
Upton, M. R	S. W. La. Industrial Institute Examination	Sophomore
Barcsai, M	Heidelberg University University of Vienna	Graduate
Benitez, A	Rock Hill College, (Md.)	Graduate
Collier, T. H	Virginia Military Institute	Graduate
Peterson, N. F	University of Nebraska	Graduate
Ramirez, J	Syracuse University	Graduate
Tsiang, K. S	University of Illinois	Graduate
Hodges, C. B	U. S. Military Academy	Graduate
Nesom, G. E	Iowa State College	Graduate
Nakasawa, H. G	Taokyo Agricultural College	Graduate

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS OF THE STATE UNIVERSITIES

EXPRESSED IN UNITS OF HIGH SCHOOL WORK---1911-1912

In the following table are given the admission requirements of the state universities as stated in the catalogues of the several institutions or obtained through correspondence with officials of the institutions. In the catalogues of several institutions the terms of admission are not stated in units and in the reduction to the unit basis possibly some mistakes have been made, but for all practical purposes the list will be found sufficiently accurate. The statistics exhibit a rather remarkable uniformity of admission requirements as expressed in units but in the specific subjects required for admission the practice of the state universities varies so widely that it is impossible to tabulate them. Practically all of the universities in this list accept the definition of a unit given by the Carnegie Foundation and the College Entrance Examination Board.

Alabama	14
Arizona	15
Arkansas	13
California	15
Colorado	15
Cornell	15
Florida	12
Georgia	14
Illinois	15
Indiana	16
Iowa	15
Idaho	15
Kansas	15
Kentucky	14
Louisiana	14
Maine	14
Michigan	15
Minnesota	15
Mississippi	14
Missouri	15
Montana	15
Nebraska	15
Nevada	16
New Mexico	16
North Carolina	14
North Dakota	15
Ohio	15
Oklahoma	15
Oregon	15
Pennsylvania State College	14
South Carolina	10
South Dakota	15
Tennessee	14
Texas	14
Utah	15
Virginia	14
West Virginia	15
Vermont	14
Washington	15
Wisconsin	14
Wyoming	15

ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS OF SOUTHERN COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES 1911-1912

A study of the entrance requirements of the Southern colleges and universities makes clear the fact that there are wide differences of opinion as to what constitutes a unit of high school work. The definition of the unit given by the College Entrance Examination Board and the Carnegie Foundation is not generally accepted.

Some institutions in estimating units consider the subjects only, disregarding the time spent in study and the length of the high school course. In this way fourteen or fifteen units can easily be obtained from a crowded three-year high school course. Perhaps no objection can be made to this when admission is by adequate examination, but for a college to allow upon certificate more than four units for a high school session is to defeat the purposes for which the unit standard of measurement was planned, viz., the elevation of the standard of admission to the freshman class of college and the encouragement of adequate high school work by requiring four years of preparation.

The lax administration of the unit system is probably due to the fact that there are very few high schools in the South which give four full years of high school work. The public high school system in no Southern state (Texas and Missouri being partial exceptions) includes four full years or sixteen units of high school work. In most of the Southern states high school work begins in the eighth grade and extends through the eleventh grade, about one-half of the eighth grade being devoted to grammar school subjects. In the North and West where so many high schools extend their work through the twelfth or even the thirteenth grade it is not difficult for the college to obtain a fourteen, fifteen, or even sixteen unit admission. But in the South where the full value of the entire high school course is usually about fourteen units it is practically impossible to get a fifteen unit requirement without relaxing admission regulations or imposing too many conditions.

It is a fact worthy of note that many institutions which announce a requirement of fourteen or fifteen units have attached to them three-year preparatory schools to which students of grammar grade may be admitted. On the other hand it is the opinion of the compiler of these tables that the soundest fourteen or fifteen unit requirements are found in those small colleges which possess or are closely affiliated with good four-year preparatory schools. Since few of the public high schools of the South give fifteen or sixteen unit courses, since the standard high schools give only a fourteen unit course, and since probably more than one-half of the high schools do not yet give more than a twelve unit course it is evident that those institutions which have retained or which have added preparatory departments or model high schools in connection with the Education Department have done wisely, and that for years to come it will probably be necessary for the average Southern college which endeavors to require an honest fourteen or fifteen unit admission to admit students with heavy conditions or to maintain a preparatory department where a would be freshman may complete his high school course. These preparatory departments or model schools cannot rightly be regarded as competitors of the public school system since adequate development of the public school system very quickly drives out of business the more expensive college preparatory schools.

Conclusion: The public high school system of the Southern states is not yet sufficiently developed to support honest fourteen or fifteen unit requirements for all of the Southern colleges. Consequently with some exceptions the fourteen or fifteen unit admission requirements announced by so many Southern institutions must be regarded as subject to considerable discount. A preparatory department or model school in which graduates of weak high schools can finish their preparation is a necessity for most institutions, especially the denominational colleges, which desire to enforce honestly the standards announced. In spite of the loose administration of the admission system the present actual admission requirements of Southern colleges indicate an extraordinarily rapid advance during the past ten years.

The following table of admission requirements and of conditions allowed was compiled from the catalogues of the several institutions or obtained through correspondence with college authorities. In reducing specific subject requirements to the unit basis some mistakes were probably made, but on the whole the table will show the requirements as stated by the authorities of each institution.

Institution	For Full Admss'n	Condit'ns Alw'd
Agnes Scott College, (Ga.)	14	3
Alabama Polytechnic Institute	7	2
Baylor University, (Texas)	14	2
Berea College, (Ky.)	15	2
Bethany College, (W. Va.)	15	2
Bridgewater College	14	4
Carson and Newman College, (Tenn.)	12	
Catholic University of America, (D. C.)	15	2
Centenary College, (La.)	12	
Central University, (Ky.)	15	
Central Wesleyan College, (Mo.)	16	2
Christian Brothers College, (Mo.)	14	2
Clemson Agricultural College, (S. C.)	8	
College of Charleston	10	

Institution	For Full Admss'n	Condit'ns Alw d
College of William and Mary	14	2
Converse College	14	3
Cumberland University	15	4
Davidson College	14	6
Elon College, (N. C.)	14	4
Emory and Henry College, (Va.)	14	4
Emory College, (Ga.)	14	4
Erskine College, (S. C.)	12	
Florida State College for Women	12	2
Georgetown College, (Ky.)	14	2
Georgetown University, (D. C.)	15	1
Georgia School of Technology	10	
George Washington University, (D. C.)	15	
Goucher College, (Md.)	15	
Guilford College, (N. C.)	13	
Hampden-Sidney College, (Va.)	14	5
Henderson College, (Ark.)	14	4
Hendrix College, (Ark.)	14	4
Henry Kendall College, (Okla.)	16	2
Howard College, (Ala.)	14	2
H. Sophie Newcomb College	15	3
Jefferson College	12	
John B. Stetson University, (Fla.)	15	
Johns Hopkins University	14	2
Judson College, (Ala.)	14	2
Kentucky State University	15	2
Kentucky Wesleyan College	14	
Kingfisher College, (Okla.)	15	
Louisiana State University	14	3
Loyola College, (Md.)	12	
Maryland Agricultural College	7	
Maryville College, (Tenn.)	15	3
Mercer University, (Ga.)	14	4
Meredith College, (N. C.)	14	3
Meridian Male College	10	
Milligan College, (Tenn.)	15	
Millsaps College, (Miss.)	14	2
Mississippi Agricultural and Mechanical College	5	
Missouri Valley College	15	
Missouri Wesleyan College	15	
North Carolina College of Agriculture and Mechanical Arts	4	
Oklahoma Agricultural and Mechanical College	10	
Ouachita College, (Ark.)	14	
Park College, (Mo.)	15	
Peabody College, (Tenn.)	14	
Piedmont College, (Ga.)	15	4½
Presbyterian College of S. C	12	3
Randolph-Macon College, (Va.)	14	

Institution	For Full Admss'n	Condit'ns Alw'd
Randolph-Macon Woman's College	15	4½
Roanoke College, (Va.)	14	4
Rock Hill College, (Md.)	15	
Rollins College, (Fla.)	15	2
Richmond College, (Va.)	14	4
South Carolina Military Academy	10	2
Southern University, (Ala.)	14	2
Southwestern Presbyterian College, (Tenn.)	14	
Southwestern University, (Texas)	14	5
Spring Hill College, (Ala.)	12	
St. John's College, (Md.)	14	2
St. Louis University	15	
St. Mary's College, (N. C.)	14	
St. Mary's University, (Texas)	12	
Sweetbriar College, (Va.)	14	
Texas A. & M. College	10	
Transylvania University, (Ky.)	15	3
Trinity College, (D. C.)	16	2
Trinity College, (N. C.)	14	4
Tulane University' (La.)	15	3
University of Alabama	14	2
University of Arkansas	13	3
University of Chattanooga	14	4
University of Florida	12	2
University of Georgia	14	
University of Louisville	15	
University of Misisssippi	14	2
University of Missouri	15	
University of North Carolina	14	
University of Oklahoma	15	3
University of South Carolina	10	
University of Tennessee	14	2
University of Texas	14	2
University of the South	14	
University of Virginia	14	2
Vanderbilt University	14	2
Virginia Military Institute	10	
Virginia Polytechnic Institute	10	
Wake Forest College, (N. C.)	14	2
Washington and Lee University	14	2
Washington and Tusculum College, (Tenn.)	15	
Washington College, (Md.)	10	2
Washington University, (Mo.)	15	1
Wesleyan Female College, (Ga.)	14	4
Western Maryland College	8	2
Westminster College, (Mo.)	15	
Westminster College, (Texas)	16	3
West Virginia University	15	

Institution	For Full Admss'n	Condit'ns Alw'd
West Virginia Wesleyan College	15	2
William Jewel College, (Mo.)	15	
Wofford College, (S. C.)	14	4

LOUISIANA INSTITUTES AND SUMMER SCHOOLS

By L. J. ALLEMAN
State Institute Conductor

The standard of any school system is measured by the quality of teachers employed; and the efficiency of teachers depends upon four cardinal qualifications—scholarship, professional training, experience, and capacity for sustained hard work. Comparatively few teachers enter service fully equipped professionally and from point of scholarship, consequently the institute and summer school, organized for the sole purpose of providing means of improvement for teachers in service, are indispensable factors in any progressive school system. When properly organized and conducted they offer means of improvement to all teachers regardless of previous training.

The ideal plan of preparing teachers for the class-room is through the medium of normal schools and teachers' colleges; but our two splendid normal schools and our two teachers' colleges prepare a small number only, of the teachers employed in our public schools, thus leaving a distinct and very important field for the institute and summer school. The purpose of this article is to discuss somewhat briefly the means of improvement provided by Louisiana for the improvement of her teachers engaged in active service; to show the readiness with which the teachers seize the opportunity for self-improvement; and to point out the large dividend declared to the State annually as a result of the small investment made in institutes and summer schools.

Shortly after the establishment of the State Normal school in 1884, provision was made by law for the establishment of monthly parish institutes of one day each; one-week institutes to be located at such points as determined upon by the institute board; and summer schools, simirlarly located, with a minimum term of four weeks. From a small beginning these institutes and summer schools have grown in attendance and in scope of courses offered, until they are now intimately connected with the development of the school system, reaching and influencing the quality of work being done in the remotest rural district. Practically every person who contemplates entering the profession attends one or more sessions at summer schools; and every beginner is required to attend the parish teachers' institute conducted under the direction of the parish superintendent. Thus it will be seen that the institute and summer school have a close relation to the organization, management, and teaching of our schools, by providing a maximum of training along these lines in a minimum of time. They provide the only means of improvement for those teachers who, for some reason, before they entered the profession failed to receive such academic and professional training as is provided by the training schools established for this purpose.

In the earlier days, much emphasis was placed upon the one-week institute (1) because it furnished a means of inspiring and helping the teachers professionally, and at the same time of arousing public sentiment through the lectures given at night sessions; (2) because the summer schools were weak, unorganized, and poorly attended; and (3) because the monthly parish institute was conducted in two or three parishes only, for the reason that the parish superintendent in those days had neither time, inclination, nor professional insight to make a success of the work. (It is only fair to state here, that the salary of the parish superintendent was fixed by law at $250 per year). These one-week institutes, being itinerant and conducted by specially trained educators, aroused the teachers to a realization of the necessity for better preparing themselves for their great work; and they aroused the people to a realization of the fact that the State needed longer terms, better schoolhouses, and better paid teachers.

Such was the result of the missionary work of the one-week institute, the maintenance of which for many years was provided for by the Peabody Fund, that it may be regarded as the pioneer in the movement for a progressive school system. In addition to the results already enumerated, it was the means of making known and popularizing the great task which had just been undertaken at the State Normal School; it laid the foundation for organized teacher-training work now being done by our efficient parish superintendents in the monthly parish teachers' institutes; it has contributed to the development of a professional spirit among the teachers and indirectly to attendance upon training and summer schools; it has therefore contributed its share toward making it possible to conduct successfully nine-week summer schools and locating them permanently at our state institutions of learning. The one-week institute was the messenger which bore testimony of the great educational awakening which was at hand, and which was destined to transform our schools into the present rapidly evolving system.

The one-week institute has been superseded by the monthly institutes and the nine-week summer school. The monthly institute attempts to do all and more than was attempted in the one-week institute; it has this distinct advantage: the teachers are now called upon to do a definite amount of preparation for the meetings and they consequently get more results from the work. The inspiration usually brought by trained instructors at the one-week institute and the high standard of their work are, however, sometimes lacking at the monthly meetings. Then, too, there is the disadvantage of scattering the work over the entire session, instead of concentrating it into a period of one week.

During the past session, practically every parish held monthly meetings of one day each, or bi-monthly meetings of two days. These meetings cost effort and sacrifice on the part of the superintendent and teachers, but the results obtained justify it all.

In the monthly meetings the work is outlined under three main divisions, as follows: (1) Study and discussion of the organization and management of schools, particularly as applying to local conditions; (2) observation of good teaching, followed always by a discussion of the principles and methods involved; (3) study of at least two standard books—one being professional, and one studied for its general cultural content. In this manner the whole field of school-room theory and practice is covered at its important bearings upon public school work, and there is consequent improvement in the quality of teaching done.

Like the one-week institute, the summer schools were itinerant, and poorly attended at first; the term was limited to four weeks and until recently the courses were confined to the elementary subjects with a few subjects from the curriculum of the secondary school. There were no laboratories for science work, and no industrial subjects were attempted. In 1906 a school offering advanced courses of college standard was organized permanently at the Louisiana State University, Baton Rouge, and the term extended to six weeks. In 1908 summer schools were permanently located at the state institutions of learning and the term was extended the following summer to nine weeks.

At the present time five schools for whites are jointly maintained by the State Institute Board and the state institutions of learning; and two for negroes located at convenient points. The white schools are maintained during nine weeks, and the negro, six weeks. Two of the schools for white teachers, the Louisiana State University and Tulane, offer courses in professional and academic subjects of college grade; the Louisiana State Normal school offers its regular academic and professional work during the summer, and teachers are enrolled for nine weeks, or for the entire summer term as they prefer. The Louisiana Industrial Institute at Ruston, and the Southwestern Industrial Institute at Lafayette offer courses embracing all subjects required in teachers' examination for the three grades of certificates; and in addition have professional courses in theory and art of teaching, with model schools for observation and practice. Every school offers courses in industrial subjects such as domestic science and art, mechanical drawing, wood and iron work, agriculture. Three of the schools, those last named, have special courses designed for rural teachers; the State Normal School having recently added a special course for the training of rural teachers. Thus it will be seen that the summer schools have kept pace with the rapid development of the school system, adding subjects to their courses from time to time to meet the needs of the schools and the teachers of the State.

The teachers of the State have taken advantage of the opportunity offered by these excellent summer schools for improving their scholarship and professional qualifications: they have raised the grade of their certificates in the schools offering courses in the secondary subjects, and prepared to teach special subjects in the schools offering college courses. The institutions recognize satisfactory work done in the summer by granting credit toward graduation; the State encourages attendance upon these schools by granting an extension of a valid certificate for one year, or giving a credit of 15 per cent to be added to the general average in an examination for any teachers' certificate.

During the past session practically every teacher in the State attended the monthly meetings; but in addition over four thousand teachers and prospective teachers attended the summer schools. Of these over one thousand were graduates of colleges, normal and high schools; about one thousand held first grade teachers' certificates, and over fifteen hundred of those present held valid teachers' licenses. Thus it will be seen that the summer schools reach 50 per cent of all teachers employed, and the institute nearly all of them. To the institute and summer school, and more particularly to our well-organized summer schools of nine-weeks belong much of the credit for the material advancement in the scholarship of our teachers and much of the credit for the virile teaching corps at present employed in our public schools.

THE PROPER RELATION BETWEEN HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE DEPARTMENTS OF INSTRUCTION

ENGLISH

Governor Woodrow Wilson, one of our most noted educators, has somewhere said that literature can be "learned but not taught." Professor Thomas R. Lounsbury, the eminent scholar and professor of English, has recently expressed himself most emphatically against compulsory composition.* And, to add insult to injury, as it were, Dr. Charles H. Judd, the distinguished Head of the Department of Education in the University of Chicago, makes the rather startling statement that no specific subjects should be required in the high school.†

In the face of these expert opinions, it might seem, at first blush, presumptuous to discuss the matter of English at all, in connection with either high school or college. But not so. Even if literature cannot be taught,—and my experience inclines me to this opinion,—it certainly cannot be learned without the ability to read the written word. Moreover, the best literature cannot be read intelligently, and will not be read at all by the majority, without proper introduction and guidance. In the matter of composition, certainly no man is regarded as fit for service in his community who cannot express his thoughts and desires in correct every-day English; and, "though I say it that shouldn't," most college professors would be well satisfied with such ideal material! Even the last of the three apparent aspersions by no means eliminates the subject of English from discussion. For, even if the day ever comes when English is not required in the high school, for reasons manifest to every one, it will always have a favorite place in the curriculum.

Granted, then, that English shall continue to occupy a prominent post in our educational institutions, it is eminently fitting that we should consider the relation between high school and college English. This question, strictly American, can best be answered in the truly American way, by asking several others: What are the principal aims in the teaching of English? With these ends in view, what should constitute the content of the course? How is this to be presented so as to bring about the desired results? As the college can but continue the work of the high school, I take it that it will be sufficient to discuss these questions with special reference to the latter.

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*. Compulsory Composition in Colleges. Harper's Magazine, November, 1911.

†. Letter appended to Report of Committee upon Articulation of High School and College. San Francisco, July 11, 1911.

Preliminary to the statement as to aim, it may be well to call to mind the principal object of education, whether in high school or college, as conceived at this time. With reference to the high school, a notable definition of the goal to be striven for is as follows: "It is the duty of the high school to give every student instruction carefully designed to return to society intelligent, able-bodied, and progressive citizens."** The principal service of the college is also to prepare its students for citizenship in similar though higher lines. In both, this preparation should be vocational as well as cultural. Since the work of the college can only begin where that of the high school leaves off, the question here under consideration resolves itself into: What part should English play in the preparation of our youth for intelligent and progressive citizenship?

The transcendent influence of good literature, and the correspondingly pernicious effect of vicious literature, upon the mind and morals of the young, needs no demonstration in this enlightened age. Our age is, above all others, a reading age. The language of books has become the principal and almost the exclusive storehouse of the riches of modern culture; and an acquaintance with this language is becoming more and more a necessary asset of every intelligent citizen. Apart, then, from cultural aim, every person who would take his place, however humble, in his community must have access to this great treasury. The youth of to-day is going to read something. The high school stands at the parting of the ways. A multiplicity of worthless novels and short stories beckon him to vice. The school is responsible for his choice. He needs instruction and guidance to enable him to choose between the good and the bad, to develop a taste for the best, to read the best intelligently. Hand in hand with intelligent and appreciative reading, should go the ability to express oneself correctly and clearly, easily and naturally, both in speech and writing. It should, therefore, be the aim of the high school to furnish to the community citizens whose broad-mindedness and high ideals, moulded by the best that has been thought and expressed by the greatest of our thinkers and authors,

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**. Report of Committee upon Articulation of High School and College. San Francisco, July 11, 1911.

will mentally, morally, and spiritually enrich the life of their fellows; and to send to the college students thoroughly prepared to become, through a still more extensive and intensive course of systematic reading, men of distinct literary culture and lofty ideals, with ability to think and minds stored with thought-producing material.

The content of the high school course in English needs here only a suggestion or two, and, in the nature of the case, will not be affected by the pupil's future intentions. Great latitude should be permitted in the choice of works to be read, since a course that is good in one high school may not be suited to the needs of another,—provided that only good models of modern English be included in the earlier part of the course. The present college entrance requirements certainly approach the ideal, if only the teacher keeps the aim in mind and follows a common-sense method of handling the literature and the individual pupils. On the practical side the work should, I am convinced, consist largely of drill in language and imitative writing: spelling, grammar, and dictation and reproduction of sentences and paragraphs from the best prose writers of the nineteenth century, with special emphasis upon Macaulay. As much collateral reading as possible should be done, and in connection with this original writing of abstracts and outlines will complete the necessary composition work. My own experience leads me to agree with Professor Lounsbury, that original composition should be left to those who show a distinct aptitude for it. Compulsion from within will make writers of them. Compulsion from without brings only distaste to the pupil and useless drudgery to the already overburdened teacher. Moreover, psychology sustains this view. In the mind of the youth memory is strong and imitation comes easy. The result is that not only the mechanical elements of punctuation, capitalization, etc., gradually imbibed, but a choice and precise use of words, and clear, forcible sentence and paragraph structure are unconsciously attained. Other results, of more interest to some of us, perhaps, are: the high school graduate whose tastes lie in other directions faces no bugbear of required English at college; and the college professor of English has some opportunity for really inspiring work—minus drudgery.

We are now prepared for the last of the questions to be considered: How is English to be presented in the high school in order to insure the results desired? And I believe that the proposed general method, if we may call it by that much abused appellation, will meet with the approval of all three of the illustrious educators referred to above.

As we have said before, the result to be attained from literary study is a definite one. It may be expressed thus: The cultivation of the desire to read intelligently the best literature. There are many things today that make against the success of this noble purpose: the host of worthless sensational novels and stories; the love of the average American for sensation, encouraged by such literature, by the popular picture show, etc.; the whirl of business life and lack of time for solid reading; the lack of good books in the home; and the incompleteness of school libraries. In most cases the desire for good reading must be cultivated in the hearts and minds of children who have been surrounded by some or all of these influences. Hence, before any reading can be done, some preparation is generally necessary; and this is the most important part of the work. The pupil must be introduced to a new atmosphere; he must know and feel something of the spirit of the time that he is about to consider; he must, if possible, enter into the mood of the author; and he must get the proper point of view through his own past experiences, when this is possible. All of this can, to a great extent, be accomplished by a short preliminary talk from the enthusiastic teacher, sometimes followed by investigation on the part of the pupil. The desire to read will follow naturally enough.††

But the reading should not be yet begun. If it is to be intelligent reading, work on the vocabulary, the language, and the spirit of the time with which the particular literature in hand deals, will be necessary, in some cases even before the literature is in the hands of the pupil. This may seem to some very unwise—the very way of all ways to drudgery and disgust. Experience shows, however, that, even if it were not necessary, it would be desirable because of the intense interest aroused and the knowledge gained. Moreover, youthful curiosity, which becomes atrophied if left unemployed, is in a measure satisfied through the art of literary exploration. The general reader may want to luxuriate in reading, but the high school pupil wants to learn how to investigate. He likes to be given something to do. He is eager to conquer difficulties, to solve puzzles.

The annotation, then, should be full of exhortations and promptings to labor and to thought, but the pupil himself should gather the information necessary to a clear understanding of the literature being read. The high school should graduate pupils expert in the use of the encyclopedia and the dictionary, quick to surmise which way to turn to find information about men and things. The real books of the world are bound together by infinite links of mutual explanation, and every book of value must be read with reference to other books. The youth who is capable of curiosity and knows how to find what he wants, has one of the best gifts the high school course in literature can bestow.*† The finger-in-the-dictionary habit, which should have its foundation in the grades, certainly aids in conferring this gift. After this work is done by individual assignment and report, supplemented by the teacher's comments, the actual reading, with continual emphasis upon oral and memory work, will make its own appeal to the interest, emotion, and imagination of the pupil.

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††. For an excellent treatment of this idea, see Arlo Bates's "The Teaching of Literature." Houghton.

Written work based upon the literature read in the class room should be given little or no attention as required exercise in composition. The study of the literature with a view to simply preparing students for college entrance should be kept in the background; the expression of thoughts obviously individual, and the evidence of clear thinking, will make a far more favorable impression on the examiner than garbled and hackneyed phrases memorized from the critical essays of others. Finally, no wise teacher will spoil the effect of the author by everlastingly worrying the pupil with the intended moral. This and other far-reaching results are unconsciously achieved. Among these are: an increased knowledge of life; the absorption of broad and general truths concerning human nature and feeling; and the gradual cultivation of a sensitiveness to high ideals.

Such a course as I have imperfectly described, if thoroughly conducted, will certainly go far towards giving the community a nucleus of intelligent and progressive citizenship. The college, the final link in the chain of education, must complete the work so well begun; and with students already thoroughly versed in the fundamentals,—spelling, punctuation, and grammar,—skilled in correct expression, and thirsting for deeper draughts from the fountain of pure literature, the professor of English will at last recline on the traditional bed of roses—aye, roses *sans* thorns!

*†. See Introduction to "Select Essays of Addison," by Samuel Thurber, whom I have freely quoted here. Allyn & Bacon.

—*HUGH MERCER BLAIN, Professor of English, Louisiana State University.*

FOREIGN LANGUAGES

This sub-division of the general subject will be considered in this article as affected by Louisiana conditions rather than in the abstract. Furthermore, as the American high school course of study is unquestionably yet in a formative stage, even with its many excellencies, the general tone of what may be stated in this paper is to be regarded as tentative and yet with some degree of conviction based on some years of experience and observation.

Without disparaging, under-valuing, or even comparing any of the currently taught foreign languages as are found in American high schools, colleges, or universities of to-day, the specific foreign languages which may reasonably find a place somewhere in the Louisiana high school course of study are: Latin, French and Spanish. It is my belief that Greek and German should be left entirely to the college or private academy in Louisiana; and it may be added just here that just as college credit under certain conditions is given beginner's, German, French, or Spanish, the same under certain conditions might well be done for Greek, even though this should be at variance with an American tradition of nearly three hundred years' standing, yet this would certainly be an incentive to the aspirations of such ambitious young men and women as wish to take up this subject in College. In fact college credit is now being given in some of the best colleges and universities of our country for first year of Greek.

With just three foreign languages to provide for in the high school, Spanish may readily be assigned its proper place as having distinctly a direct commercial value. In large city schools with great numbers to provide for and with any kind of stress laid on commercial courses, this language may find its place. Apart from its direct commercial bearing Spanish is of less effect than either French or Latin in the high school. Should the specialist, whether in history or literature, find a need of Spanish, he had best take it up in College.

While Louisiana is glorious with its halo of French traditions, the average high school student of language needs French in some measure less than he does Latin. This question of modern vs. ancient languages has been tossed to and fro for some three hundred years with spurts of enthusiasm and ardor on both sides and need not be imposed here. French is no more a court or specifically a commercial language, but is either for literature's sake or of direct help to the science student, whether in the professions or applied sciences.

It may seem paradoxical to say that under certain conditions a student learns one language faster and better by studying two together than one alone. Duality runs through the universe either as fact or principle. It should then be a fixed purpose of school authorities to so arrange courses that all students may have an opportunity of studying English and one foreign language in the high school; English, to be sure, is required uniformly. English and also one foreign language should be in most cases required.

Not yet have foreign languages by years or subject matter been specifically apportioned between high school and college; this is in a large measure impracticable. So far as I know, college credit is nowhere given first year Latin and only under special conditions do second and third year Latin receive college credit, so that no well defined line of demarkation by years separates high school from college work in the foreign languages. The Classical Journal of the Middle West and South in the December, 1911, number, says in its editorial department that for most high school pupils of the Middle West the two-year preparatory Latin course instead of the four-year preparatory course in Latin which has so long been maintained (i. e., in the East) is the normal thing. It may be added that this is the condition in Louisiana as well. The general proposition is now that for most high schools of the Middle West and South the tendency is toward a two-year preparatory Latin course and such is the case also with the modern languages, with the opportunity of a third year in the foreign language which has been pursued for two years. This change requires for one thing more direct teaching, with language work somewhat more definitely outlined than was the case in the four-year course.

Among the notable points to be borne in mind in high school foreign language work as contrasted with college work in the same subjects is that the high school study is largely *formative*; habits of study, of verification of results, of a sense of *victory*, are paramount. The thought content of a first year book in a foreign language is less consequential than is the *mechanics of speech.* The warfare between work and interest will continue. As far as possible work and interest are to be conjoined; but in no sort of language work can the burden of the mechanics of speech be overcome by ignoring hard work in the effort to be guided by interest alone.

With English and American civilization in its manifold aspects so inextricably debtors to Roman life, law, letters, philosophy, politics, and language, an inheritance which should be as tenaciously guarded and generously drawn upon as it is rich in resources, an inheritance which is not in the least impoverished by being drawn upon but more abundantly enriches him who draws upon it, the question is not whether Latin shall be taught or not, but is simply when, where, how much, and how. A discussion of these matters here is, of course, beyond the scope of this paper.

In foreign language work the work done in the high school should, if possible, not be duplicated in the college. The high school mind is in some measure rather more receptive than judicial. The college and university points of radiation of mental effort are on the side of analysis, discrimination, artistic appreciation, recasting and correcting early misapprehensions and inadequate conceptions. The *forms* and *norms* of speech should in the high school become fixed so that with the mechanics of speech well mastered the years in college may be given to language as a general concept, to literature in its broader expression of life, to the thought content of the authors read, to the elements of philology and the historical evolution and significance of speech; the conquest and enjoyment of a foreign language in college is directly dependent on the foundation laid in the high school, so that the college in such work will continue to be debtor to the high school; and there is no question but that for success in foreign language work the high school doing well its part deserves and should receive the greater credit.

—*E. L. SCOTT, Professor of Ancient Languages, Louisiana State University.*

SOCIAL SCIENCES

It ought not to be necessary to devote much space in this paper to an emphasis of the value of the social sciences in both the secondary schools and the colleges, but an examination of this field of instruction shows that these are almost entirely college subjects, and that, with the possible exception of History, they have received but scant attention from those who frame the high-school curricula. Our colleges and universities have well-equipped departments of History, Political Science, Economics, and Sociology, and the expansion of the work in these subjects, as a result of a continually increasing interest in contemporary social problems, has been one of the most noticeable movements in institutions for higher learning in recent years. In the secondary schools, however, no such tendency has appeared.

When so much attention is being given to the social sciences in one class of institutions and so little in another, what can be said of the relation which should obtain between the work in these respective places? It seems that what is most needed is to call attention to this gap in the public school curriculum, and to enter a plea that it be not allowed longer to remain.

President Nicholas Murray Butler, of Columbia University, has said, "The first question to be asked in any course of study is, *Does it lead to a knowledge of contemporary civilization.* If not, it is neither efficient nor liberal." (The italics are mine). Now can anyone point to any subjects which lead more directly and more effectively to a knowledge of our contemporary civilization than do the social sciences? President Butler's statement is almost tantamount to an assertion that a course of study without the social sciences is inefficient and illiberal. Within recent years a movement has been inaugurated with the ostensible object of vitalizing the high-school course of study; and from Maine to California pedagogues have taken up the cry of "Bring the schools closer to life." With this purpose no fault can be found. To say that an education which trains away from life is no education at all is merely to obtrude the obvious. It is not the end, but the methods employed for the attainment of this end, which are open to criticism. For some curious reason the first step in the movement toward "vitalization" has been, not the emphasizing of social education, as one should logically expect, but the injection into the course of study of a mass of facts collectively designated as nature-study, and its introduction has usually been achieved at the expense of some part of the work in mathematics, language, or literature. Thus, under the guise of bringing the schools closer to life, the study of Caesar has been elbowed out by the study of the caterpillar; the pupils are taught less of literature and more about lizards, less of "math." and more of moth.

Permit me here to disclaim any purpose whatever of detracting from the value of the natural sciences, or for that matter of any other part of the school course. To use a cant phrase, the natural sciences are indispensable to a well-rounded education; but it is hardly conceivable that nature study will assist the pupil to any great degree in grappling with the problems of life. Such an idea must have originated in a brain devoted purely to speculative philosophy.

We now have the problem stated, and may it be briefly summarized as follows: (1) The high school course lays little emphasis on social education; (2) it is claimed that the high schools should more fully meet the demands of modern civilization; (3) the social sciences are preeminently the courses which will enable the schools more fully to meet these demands; and (4) since these subjects should be a part of the high school course, what relation should they bear to similar work in higher institutions?

If the schools are to train the pupils to get the most out of life they should offer work in History, Civil Government, and Economics. Sociology, in the present status of this science, is in the opinion of the writer essentially a college subject; but many of its simpler principles may be inculcated in the high school in connection with the work in the three a lied subjects. Every high school should offer four years of History, devoting the first year to the Orient, Greece, and Rome, the second to mediaeval and modern Europe, the third to England, and the fourth to the United States. The field is too vast and the subject-matter now too complicated to permit any attempt to cover the whole subject in a general one-year or two-year course, Such an effort would result in presenting to the pupils only dry-as-dust annals of wars and dynasties, which would contain very little of practical or cultural value. The minimum requirement in every high school should be one full year of History; the work should be assigned to the lowest high school grade and should cover the field of ancient History, the least complicated division of the subject and the one which will give the pupil a foundation for any further historical work that he might elect in the upper grades. This plan has an advantage in that it permits articulation with work in History as it is generally conducted in our colleges. A high school graduate having had only the minimum requirement in ancient History, on entering college, will find that his course in Freshman History is a somewhat more intensive study of mediaeval and modern Europe and therefore a continuation of his year of high school work. If it is objected that this single secondary course in ancient History is not sufficiently "connected with life," the answer is that a study of ancient times is indispensable in gaining a sense of historic proportion; that it further shows us how and whence we came, and therefore helps us to understand where we now are and whither we are going. A man ignorant of the past is apt to have a head filled with the most absurd notions of the present. He has no sense of proportion or perspective; he can discern no difference between a surface ripple and a tidal wave. Great world-movements, indicating that he lives in an age of science and humanity, fail to impress him, while a single scandal in his isolated village is sufficient to convince him that he lives in a degenerate age, and that the world is going to the dogs. For such narrowness of vision a study of the past offers a good remedy.

Fully to understand the present, the pupil must gain a knowledge not only of the past but also of his present political surroundings and public duties. Civil Government therefore demands its share of attention. Much Civil Government may be taught in connection with a course in American History, but separate courses are preferable. If the subjects must be taught together the teacher should be careful not to spoil the continuity of the History by the injection of governmental facts into the course at inopportune times. Any correlation of the high school work in Civil Government with the college work in Political Science is a matter of no great importance. The essential fact is that all high school pupils should obtain a clear understanding of the fundamental principles of our political system. The work should be regarded as only incidentally preparatory to college courses. Perhaps eighty per cent. of the pupils will get from the high school course all the civic education they will ever obtain. Their teacher's efforts will bring some of them the only unprejudiced information that they will ever receive upon the highly complicated problems on which they will later express an opinion through the exercise of their right of suffrage. Herein lies the teacher's great opportunity and also his grave responsibility. He must try to teach his pupils to "think straight" and to approach political problems with open minds.

But instruction in Civil Government alone will not enable the pupil to master the political problems of the present day. Modern Political Science is more and more concerned with economic principles. We live in an economic environment. Turn to the newspapers and you will observe that the whole nation is busily discussing such economic topics as tariff revision, the trusts, the income tax, railway regulation, a central bank, trade unionism, conservation and socialism. The platforms of political parties and the messages of our presidents are in large part disquisitions on economic subjects. In every national election we have to vote on economic questions. If the high school is going to fit the pupil for life, it must not omit instruction in Economics. As in the case of Civil Government, the teacher should not look upon the work in Economics as preparatory to other courses. He should strive to elucidate principles rather than to cram the heads of the pupils with facts from which, on account of their immature minds, they are unable to draw logical inferences.

Recently there has been placed in my hands a copy of the report on the articulation of high schools and colleges adopted by the secondary department of the National Educational Association. In it occurs this statement: "Courses in Economics should be encouraged. Economic discussions are paramount and ignorance of economic principles is appalling." Who can measure the losses which our country has undergone in the last half-century as a result of the general lack of knowledge of economic principles? Cheap-money crazes have depressed business and fomented bitter class and sectional feeling. Legislatures have virtually set aside, so far as they were able, the laws of supply and demand. Demagogues have reached high places in public life through their indiscriminate heckling of corporations. Shall we allow these conditions to persist? Shall our schools continue to send out their pupils with only half-baked knowledge on public questions, creatures at the mercy of yellow journals, easily deluded by the buncombe of politicians, and a prey to some of the most fantastic economic and political delusions? Is not this neglect of social education responsible for much of the present-day class feeling, which is perhaps the most dangerous menace to our free government? The poor man comes from an environment reeking with prejudice against the well-to-do, and the labourer of to-day often looks upon our whole system of government as a scheme of the rich to exploit society for their own benefit. To remedy such evils our schools must give thorough training by competent instructors in History, Government, and Economics. This is the most effective way to sow the seeds of public sanity and civic righteousness.

The objection is raised that the high school curriculum is already over-crowded; that no additional time can be given to History and Government, and that there is really no time at all available for work in Economics. In the face of such objections, I am constrained by a decent regard for the opinions of mankind to submit this question to a candid world: If the schools are to fit pupils better for life, which subjects shall have precedence, nature or man; insects and reptiles or the initiative and referendum; bugs or banks; crawfish or Congress; larvae or labour; weeds or wages; tadpoles or the tariff? No reflection on any kind of educational work is here implied; but those who profess to believe that a study of wild nature is one of the best means of enabling the pupil to grapple with the problems of modern civilization are urged to ponder on this question and turn from the error of their ways.

In conclusion it should be said that in order to give more attention to the social sciences it is not necessary to do violence to the high school curriculum as it is at present arranged. The time devoted to the essential subjects—English, foreign languages, mathematics, etc.,—need not be changed; it will be necessary only to eliminate some of the "frills." For example, the prescribed course of study for the approved high schools of Louisiana assigns two hours per week to drawing for the entire four years. Such work of course may have the greatest value to some few pupils, but its general benefits to the entire class are hardly in proportion to the time devoted to it. By reducing the time allotted to drawing from four to two years, the equivalent of a whole year of four periods per week could be given to one or more of the social sciences, and there would be no derangement of the other studies. Few of the pupils will develop any artistic talent, and two years in drawing should be sufficient to enable the teacher to discover such budding geniuses. All the pupils, however, will have to bear their share in the life of the community and should receive at least the rudiments of a social education. Such a slight alteration as has been proposed; therefore, would be both conservative and beneficial.

—*WM. O. SCROGGS, Associate Professor of Economics and History*
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PHYSICAL SCIENCES

It is almost a platitude to state that the science of to-day is the fiction of to-morrow; yet, this hackneyed repetition is not unworthy of some intelligent reflection in the light of the pedagogical issues of the present. The natural inclination to lag behind the wave of highest thought is an entirely human one, and is sometimes compounded with good sense; for what is true of the science is even more true of the methods we employ in teaching it.

The pedagogue of the extreme school is liable to teach in one year things that it will take his student four more to unlearn, unless he be one of those unusually clear-sighted geniuses who can intuitively differentiate between the permanent and the ephemeral. It takes time for new principles to ferment and settle and it takes even a longer time for them to crystallize into concrete, teachable forms. However, a successful medium must be devised; for these new, sometimes permanent, sometimes evanescent, ideas must be taught to the advanced student if he intends to stand abreast of the scientific workers of the present; and, to accomplish this advantageously, the student of the elementary science must have had his faculties moulded in the proper channels to receive this instruction.

Thus it is, that the huge portion of the task falls to the lot of the elementary teacher. If his part has been performed correctly, what follows is easy of manipulation. The practical illustrations will be found in the sequal.

For reasons, which are obvious in the foregoing, the correct articulation of the science of the Secondary School to that of the College curriculum is almost a matter of impossiblity, unless there are uniform requirements in the one, and advanced methods of teaching and thinking in the other. Even then, there is much to be desired. The most rigid requirements cannot govern the personal inclinations of the teacher; and, sad to say, not too many colleges require that their courses in science be of the most modern design.

But granting that this state of affairs does not hold, the question resolves itself into what should and what should not be stressed in the elementary courses. This, again, is a matter which rests largely with the teacher, and for which, no successful set of rules can be formulated. To give a few examples of of the difficulties that confront the teacher of college chemistry would, perhaps, be the best way of approaching the matter. Any suggestions given, of course, are intended to be executed primarily upon the student who might continue his studies at college.

The most natural beginning to the discussion of chemistry is the Atomic Theory. Probably no other single phase of chemical theory has been so much mooted, pedagogically, as this one has. That the science is unquestionably obligated to it, is not the point at variance; but that it produces an unhealthy habit in the student of picturing in his imagination these entities as gyrascopic, spheroidal anomalies flinging their hooked arms about in space. For the sake of science, this is an injustice. Our knowledge of the existence of the atom is, at most, very meagre, if not, indeed, lacking. The student should accept discussions of atoms and molecules as mass relations. They were invented to explain quantitative phenomena; and used for any other purpose are liable to lead to a confusion of terms, which defeats the ends of science. Observance of this fact would avoid such laxness in expression as calling hydrogen sulphide $H2S$, and Water $H2O$, etc. In the first case, speaking or writing the symbol of hydrogen sulphide is intended to convey the idea of the composition of this substance together with the quantitative idea that it involves 34 grams or some multiple of this quantity. In the second case the symbol of water conveys the idea of composition as well as the fact that 18 grams or some multiple of this, are involved.

Of course, this rule may be violated at will, but with the sacrifice of the original scientific intent of the principle.

The extremists of the present advocate the annihilation of the atom and the molecule, and the substitution of the gram atom and the gram molecule, or, simpler, the combining weight, in their place.

Whether or not this is advisable, depends upon the estimate the teacher places upon his own ability to manage the student's conceptions. It is probable, however, that properly taught, the old abstract atoms and molecules can do no great harm; the danger arises from the loose and too frequent use of them.

Outside the attitude that the student should be guided to take toward the atomic theory, his course in elementary chemistry might become of greater benefit to him, and serve to advance him more rapidly in his higher studies, if there were injected into the course the idea of mathematical relations which exist in chemistry, and of the contiguity of mathematics and chemistry, which is necessary for a clear grasp of the latter science. This can easily be carried too far, of course, but the profits that accrue from the inclusion of a reasonable amount of this phase of chemistry, cannot be overestimated. The chief objection to this feature is that it takes considerable effort to arouse the interest of the student in the more recondite features of the science, the services of which are not at once apparent.

When the average student makes up his mind to study chemistry, he generally does so for one of two reasons. In the first place, he may take it as a cultural subject; in which case, his imagination goes leaping back over a few centuries, and he juggles the *laps lapis* and the retorts and alembics in some old alchemists shop. It is easy and, to the man of histrionic aspirations, pleasant to teach this class of student. An air of mysticism; a hint of the black art; the extraordinary, soul-stirring feat of changing the color of the red litmus by dipping it in an alkaline solution; burning a piece of steel in oxygen; in short, a popular, descriptive course enthuses this student beyond expression. His profit partakes of the nature of pastime.

In the second place, the student may be practically inclined. He will seek the manual side of chemistry. Invariably, he will shun theory, and form a strong liking for analysis, and such forms of chemistry as are calculated to yield the quickest, concrete returns.

This type of student, more frequently than any other, confronts the college professor with his difficulties.

The first man is no more in error than this one. When they come to study higher branches of chemistry, both must begin anew. They must learn the scientific alphabet again with a different pronunciation.

The surest and most successful way to avert these tendencies in the student, is by the judicious introduction of some of the mathematical relations already mentioned,—to show them that chemistry not only is intended to lay the brick, but also to design the edifice. They must understand that chemistry cannot become a working tool in this day of advanced learning unless they grasp the fundamental principles. When they have once learned this, the higher instruction they may receive will be digested more quickly, and to their greater ultimate advantage.

If the student falls into the habit of accepting everything that is dealt out to him as dogma, if he accepts the so-called laws as irrevocable, he has about as good as lost all the benefits of his course.

The introduction to these mathematical relations, should above everything include an elementary discussion of the principles of electrolytic dissociation. This cannot fail to arouse the student's interest, besides serving as a wonderful "eye-opener."

The teaching of the principles of chemical equilibrium are almost necessary. Many of the very first phenomena the student becomes acquainted with are reversible reactions, and they cannot be satisfactorily explained without recourse to the principle of equilibrium, Then, too, loose methods of speech arise from a neglect of the study of this principle. The teacher may unwarily state that sulphuric acid is stronger than carbonic acid. Nine men out of ten will allow this to pass unchallenged, but the tenth man, who is a rising genius, will blurt out the staggering information that a solution of sodium carbonate will precipitate copper carbonate from a solution of copper sulphate! How will the teacher explain it? The old sway-backed, wrinkled "affinity" will balk here.

The teacher who thoroughly grounds his students in the elements of the principle of equilibrium before sending them to college, is a quasi-immortal in the college professor's mind.

Just how far this mathematical training may be carried is questionable. There are text-books on the market which attempt the explanation of radio-activity, the osmotic theory of the cell, and what not that is too absurd to mention. This is the extremist again.

In conclusion, it might be said that the most efficient vitalizer for the student of even the most elementary classes to have received before he enters on his higher studies, is to have had his curiosity stimulated, to have some idea of the full meaning of scientific research which should be his goal. This, as much as any other of the factors mentioned, will prepare him to receive the most in the time allotted to him to study the subject.

—*A. F. ODELL, Assistant Professor of Chemistry, Louisiana State University.*

BIOLOGIC SCIENCES

That there is adjustment needed between academic instruction in the secondary schools and colleges and universities is very evident. One does not need to undertake much of instruction in the university or college, before he is made painfully aware of a lack of harmony existing between the methods of instruction in these respective institutions.

Hitherto the colleges and universities have largely ignored their relations to the secondary schools, going on the assumption that their duties did not extend beyond their own college doors. As a consequence, there was much inevitable loss of time on the part of the student, as he struggled to adjust himself to the totally new conditions in which he found himself placed.

In the grades of the secondary schools, the student's study hours and recitation periods were closely supervised. His preparation for each recitation period was of a definite character. He must prepare to take an active part in each recitation period. This responsibility had a distinct educational value. He was an active participant in the hour's exercises.

But upon entering the college or university, the student finds all this changed. Here he finds no supervision of study hours. and often the hour, which had formerly been partially filled ,at least, by his own efforts, is now occupied by a lecture or demonstration by the teacher. From a life of rather rigid supervision, he now enters a new world of educational liberty. The pendulum now swings to the other extreme. He has not learned to direct his own efforts, and without the stimulus of the teacher's presence finds himself "led astray by every vagrant desire." As a result, I have seen the first half year of many a student wasted before he had acquired the self control necessary to meet the new conditions of life.

Some never "find themselves." Of course, this hard schooling may be a winnowing process, and in the end leave the best product behind. But it has always seemed to me that there might be less of loss of time and effort on the part of the student, if methods of instruction in the university were better adjusted to meet this transition period in the student's life,—a period when he is neither college student nor a high school student.

The teaching in the first year of the college should be a compromise between methods in vogue in the high school and in the college. The lecture and demonstration method are all right in their place, but their place is not in the first college years to the exclusion of the old time recitation period. Too often the lack of definite preparation on the part of the student puts him in a to state of mental passivity that precludes his getting much out of the hour. I am aware that this goes against much of present practice. but I am thoroughly convinced that it will help bridge over this trying period of the student's life.

As to the relations existing between academic instruction in botany in the high schools and colleges and universities, the above mentioned observation hold trues. Botany, as a natural science, treating of the environmental plant world, has occupied a place in the curriculum of the high schools and universities for a long time. Its cultural value has been well established. One can not leave out of a general education the knowledge of his environment without limiting very seriously his outlook on life. The practical aspects of botany are receiving much attention today. To be sure, the practical applications of botany are opening up many lines of attractive occupations. Frequently in teachers' meetings, where it is being discussed, but little else than its value as relating to the so-called "practical" side of life, is heard.

What has the university a right to expect from the high schools as regards the subject of botany? It seems very clear to me that all high school teaching should give precise and clear-cut information concerning the great histologic and physiologic facts of plants. Students leaving high schools, whether to enter higher institutions of learning or not,, should have had presented to them the underlying principles of the science, should know how to study plants, and should learn what position the science of botany occupies with reference to the other sciences. If the student should come to the university thus equipped, real university teaching could be given. As it is, the university spends altogether too much time in doing what the high school should have done.

But having indicated what the university has a right to expect of the high schools, we must enquire how the university can assist in the attainment of this ideal. One of the best ways, in my opinion, of assisting the high schools to measure up to this standard, is by giving illustrative courses in the various departments. These courses could be best given in the summer school session. In these courses both the subject matter and methods of teaching could be exemplified. The work offered should be of such a character as to be worthy of university credit in the departments in which they are offered. The subject matter should be such as would be available and practicable for use in the high schools. The methods of presentation ought to be readily adapted to high school teaching. I believe that the university can bring about this needed adjustment between it and the secondary schools more effectually in this way than in any other.

The university may render efficient aid to the high schools by declaring against that kind of botanical teaching that is driven about by every breeze of popular fancy. The fad of the "practical" in educational circles to-day finds much room in botany for its exploiation. Publishers, catering to this popular demand, are flooding the markets with text books in botany, catchily advertised to eliminate the "dry, theoretical mental, discipline," and offering to substitute books "full of life, human interest, and practical value." The university should not hesitate to assist the secondary schools in standing out against these "quick meal" methods of treatment.

Again, the introduction of instruction in the so-called practical aspects of botany, before the solid foundations of the science have been laid, reverses the natural order of things and will surely lead to disappointment. Shall the utterly unscientific and unbotanical minded popular demand declare as to the type of botanical teaching that shall prevail?

—*A. T. BELL, Professor of Botany and Bacteriology, Louisiana State University.*

AGRICULTURE

The dawn of the twentieth century marks an era in the development of industrial education. Many are seeing that the present high cost of living is affecting the farmer but slightly. A change from the city to the country will perhaps be the result yet the back to the farm movement will not progress rapidly until better roads, better social conditions, and better schools are offered.

The country has furnished and still is a source of the brains that manage a large portion of cosmopolitan and corporation affairs. Even every village, we might say, has its country boy grown to successful manhood. The man whose childhood has been spent on a farm is usually trained to meet responsibilities, which is a most valuable asset when a change to the city is made. If mills, factories, railroads, etc , are successfully managed by rural bred men, certainly these same men are capable of farming successfully, provided the same opportunity to get a training in that line is given them. Every business man really serves an apprenticeship, every lawyer studies for his profession, and every doctor has attended a medical college, yet only in recent years has the farmer had an opportunity to prepare for his work. The first step in this direction has been taken, but, by many, in only a half hearted way. We must grasp the situation more fully and realize that the trained man wins out.

A large percentage of farmers-to-be will have no opportunity of attending any but one public school. Then *agriculture* as *agriculture* and not as *nature study* must be placed in the curricula of the rural schools. The course of study which includes agriculture for the graded and high schools need not be one that prepares the student in that subject for entrance to a higher institution. The English, mathematics, ancient and modern languages, history, etc., would be the same as in any other course, excepting the mathematics which should be more applicable. The science ought to be taught in conjunction with agriculture just as far as possible. The problems in the vicinity of the school and home of the boy may be made the basis of a large amount of the agriculture taught in order to get each individual student thinking about his own surroundings. In that way they will learn to help themselves earning in a measure more initiativeness.

It may be difficult just now to secure teachers who can handle the agricultural subjects satisfactorily but in a short time this situation will be met and mastered.

Agriculture is the practical application of chemistry, physics, botany and zoology, so before even a high school student can understand many of the principles he ought to receive some training in the above subjects. Better still, the sciences and agriculture should be taught at the same time as is done in the agricultural colleges. It is not expected that the high school pupil shall cover the whole field, but he should be familiar with the different crops raised in the vicinity of his home, time of planting and harvesting same, elementary means of improving and caring for them as well as being able to distinguish the seeds of each. He should also know the different types of soil in the community and the methods of adding to it organic matter.

Further, the characteristic of at least one breed of beef cattle, one of dairy cattle, one of hogs, one of horses, and one of sheep should be known. Elementary principles of breeding should be studied in this connection. As a beast of burden in the South, the mule should receive special attention. The Babcock Test ought to be done by every student if he desires to be familiar with dairy farming. The horticultural interests are of sufficient magnitude to warrant knowing how to prune, spray, graft, bud, besides some of the principles of gardening. The ravages due to insects and fungii are heavy, especially in a warm climate. How to combat the common ones should be studied.

So, make it possible for the boy to stay on the farm and feel that his work is second to none in the land.

—*A. F. KIDDER, Professor of Agronomy, Louisiana State University.*

MANUAL TRAINING

The prescribed high school course of study at the present time is of such a nature that there is very little relation between the manual training work (drawing) and the work done in the college in mechanical drawing and the mechanic arts and I trust that it will not be considered presumptuous on my part if I suggest slight modifications of the high school course which I believe would not only be helpful to those boys who take up engineering or architecture in their college courses, but would also be highly beneficial to those boys whose school work ends with their graduation from the high school.

After careful study it seems to me that the work done in manual training in the high school (by the term manual training I include all of the work done in art, tool-work, needle-work and cooking) should not be the same for both girls and boys whose needs and tastes differ greatly. To make my meaning clear, I would not prescribe sewing for the boys neither would I offer tool-work to the girls though I am aware that it is done in some schools. By way of parenthesis permit me to say that I do not believe that tool-work should be taught by women any more than sewing should be taught by men. This suggested differentiation of the work done by the boys and girls would require a change in the course of instruction in drawing for the boys which would be better suited to their needs.

The change in drawing that I would suggest for the boys is to let the work done by them in the last two years of the high school be mechanical drawing which should be about as follows: use of instruments, lettering, elements of geometrical drawing and simple projections the first year, and working drawings of joints used in wood-work, agate, table, chair and model barn or stable the second year. This course in drawing could greatly benefit the high school boy whether he afterwards went to college or not. Some of its advantages may be briefly summarized as follows: he would take more interest in the work; he would use his knowledge of drawing in making and reading drawings for shopwork where that is a part of his high school course; it would be of great benefit if he afterwards decided to study engineering or architecture; it might be the means of helping him to decide his vocation in life and in later life it would greatly help him in planning a home.

As there are few high schools in the state that prescribe a course in tool-work I will take advantage of this opportunity to offer some suggestions pertaining to the equipment and to the work that could be done at small cost. At first the necessary equipment would be several work benches each supplied with a set of tools, and in addition to these individual sets, a few special tools would be required that the class would use in common. A grindstone which could be driven either by a motor, gasoline engine or by hand power would complete the equipment. The number of sets of tools necessary would depend upon the number of boys taking the work and if funds were not available for supplying a bench for each boy, the class could be divided into sections. The work benches could be made by the boys themselves under a competent instructor, which would decrease the cost of installation very considerably.

The first work done would be the construction of the simplest joints used in joining wood, accompanied by instruction in tool sharpening, and after a fair degree of accuracy had been attained all kinds of wood work for the school laboratories, building, and grounds could be made as needed and the boys might also be permitted to make something for their own homes.

The value to any boy of such a course in drawing and shopwork as I have outlined, can hardly be overestimated, for while at school it will increase his interest in all of his work, will likely keep him in school longer than he would otherwise remain, and after leaving school whether or not he actually takes a college course or follows a vocation which requires application of the knowledge he has attained, he will find use for what he has learned in any walk of life and it will ever be a source of pleasure to him.

—*A. M. HERGET, Professor of Mechanic Arts, Louisiana State University.*

THE HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS' CONFERENCE SESSION OF 1911-1912.

DECEMBER 8-9, 1911

The Fourth Annual Conference of High School Principals of Louisiana met in Alumni Hall at the State University. The first session was called to order on Friday morning, December 8, at 9:00 A. M. Principal S. M. Cook of Baton Rouge served as enrolling secretary, and his report showed an attendance of seventy-five principals of approved high schools in the State, and twenty-five principals of other schools, and a number of visitors representing the state institutions and interested schools, and also several parish superintendents. The visiting principals were welcomed by Colonel Thos. D. Boyd, President of the University, who accorded them a hearty welcome and told them that the University and all that it contained was at their disposal. He invited them to attend a reception tendered them by the faculty at the close of the evening session, and also invited them to attend the Tulane-L. S. U. football game to be held on the following day as guests of the University.

High School Inspector, Leo M. Favrot, thanked Colonel Boyd for his cordial reception of the visiting principals. He then explained that the meeting had been called for the purpose of discussing high school curricula. He stated that there was a distinct demand on the part of many schools for greater breadth and flexibility than was offered by the present course of study. This demand would doubtless increase. Many schools desired to introduce domestic science and manual training. In the absence of orgainzed courses in these subjects, they were at a loss to know just how to handle them. They desired, too, that their students should obtain some high school credits in these new courses. Mr. Favrot said that he hoped that this conference would help solve the problem of the adjustment of the new subjects to the present rather rigid and limited high school requirements, and that it would ultimately result in the planning of a course of study organized on a new basis and affording in its very nature a far greater degree of breadth and flexibility in high school curricula.

The first speaker on the program was Superintendent Jenkins of Lake Charles, who spoke on the subject: "What Subjects

Should Be Prescribed For All Courses?" Superintendent Jenkins advocated the present requirement in mathematics, history, science, and a foreign language. He favored a change in the requirement in English, particularly with respect to spelling and literature. Mr. W. P. Arnette of Welsh believed that it would be advisable to prescribe some form of manual training for all courses. He strongly advocated the present requirement in vocal music and drawing.

Considerable discussion followed these speakers. The conference voted unanimously to retain as a minimum for mathematics the present requirements for arithmetic, algebra, and plane geometry in all courses. Many principals thought that more time should be prescribed for the English work. A vote, however, showed that the majority favored the present minimum time requirement in English.

The subject, "What Four-Year Courses Should Be Organized for Our High Schools?," was introduced by Superintendent J. C. Ellis of Jefferson Parish, who strongly advocated the addition of a course in manual training and one in home management.

Following the discussion of this question a motion was made to introduce two new optional courses. This motion was tabled.

The third subject, "What Option Should Be Given Local Authorities in The Selection and Arrangement of Courses?," was discussed by Principals Faulk and McCullough. In the discussion of this question, it was brought out that the State prescribe a minimum number of units, but that parish boards and local school authorities should be allowed some choice in the selection of subjects. A plan similar to that brought out in the report adopted by the Secondary Department of the National Educational Association on the articulation of high school and college was urged by the High School Inspector as the proper basis for the organization of new high school curricula. As it was found difficult in the short time of one session to so present this plan as to make clear to the principals its full import and to enable them to vote on it, on motion of Mr. Ives of Minden, a committee was appointed to confer with Inspector Favrot relative to this plan and to submit a report showing its features at the final session of the conference. Messrs. Ives, Jenkins, and Cook were appointed on this committee.

Mr. Walet of New Iberia opened the discussion on the subject, "The Management of Elective Courses or Subjects in Our High Schools." Mr. Walet had written out several definite suggestions and his report was ordered submitted to the committee appointed to investigate the method of reorgainzation of curricula.

At the beginning of the morning session a committee on resolutions was appointed as follows: F. M. Hamilton, A. V. Smith, and J. H. McCollister.

The committee on resolutions, in addition to incorporating in their resolutions the motions carried at this session, submitted the following:

1. That the local school authorities be allowed as much latitude as may be practicable in the selection and arrangement of courses, same to be approved by the State Department of Education.

2. That in addition to the latitude allowed local authorities in selection of courses to be pursued in high schools, they also be allowed as much latitude as may seem practicable in the selection of elective studies, provided that in each instance the selection be submitted to and approved by the State Department of Education.

FRIDAY AFTERNOON'S SESSION

The topic discussed at this session was the "Requirement in Language and Social Science in Louisiana High Schools." A committee consisting of Messrs. Barham, Coxe, and Williams was named to get the sense of the conference and draft suitable resolutions on this session's discussions.

The first subject discussed was "The High School Course in English—Its Content and Arrangement." The discussion was opened by Messrs. Caldwell and O'Farrell. Mr. Caldwell stated the universal belief among the principals that poorer results were gotten from the English work than from any other work in the course. He urged a full four-year course in English of five periods per week, and presented a plan for the arrangement of the work. Mrs. McVoy of the State Normal School and Dr. Blain of the State University took part in the discussion and argued in favor of no English subject to be taught once a week. Both of them referred to the drudgery of the composition work, and urged that it be kept distinct from literature.

The next subject was the "Place of Latin in the High School Curricula." This was discussed by Messrs. L. L. Perrault and Rutledge of the high schools, Winstead of the State Normal, and Scott of the State University. One thing recommended was a text that would better prepare for the work in Caesar than the one now in use. Satisfaction was expressed with the course both on the part of the high school principals and on the part of the representative of the state institutions, who were judging the work of the high schools from its results.

The third subject was discussed by Mr. Fontenot, "The Place and Function of Modern Language." The speaker urged the teaching of French, both as a matter of local pride and because it offered a commercial and cultural asset.

"The Nature and Extent of History, Civics and Economics" was fully discussed by Principals Dummier and Phillips.

Among the motions carried at this session was one urging that "If three units are to be made in English in the highschool, these units be made by teaching English five times a week for three successive years."

Another motion that prevailed was that "It be left to the discretion of the teacher whether daily alternation of subjects or continuous daily lessons in each successively be used."

In the report of the Committee on Resolutions, there appeared the following additional suggestions:

1. That literature the child can appreciate be chosen, provided the proper privisions be made to meet college entrance requirements.

2. That the present eighth grade United History be discontinued; sufficient work in this subject being given in the grades.

FRIDAY EVENING'S SESSION

The topic for discussion was "The Practical and Vocational Branches in Louisiana."

The Committee on Resolutions consisted of Messrs. Law, Rogers, and Newton.

Messrs. Cook and H. B. Messick opened the discussion on the "Time and Scope of Special Commercial Subjects." Mr. J. L. Hutcheson spoke on the "Place of Agriculture in the High School." Supervisor E. S. Richardson, and President Roy of the State Normal School also spoke on this subject. The former urged that agriculture be not taught in separate schools, but that it be introduced into a large number of high schools as a special department. Messrs. Jack Hayes and J. G. Chapman spoke of "Home Ecomonics in the High School," telling of what was being accomplished in this subject in their own schools. Mr. Avery of

Winnfield treated "Shop Work and Manual Training in the Secondary School."

The Committee on Resolutions for this session urged the reorganization of the present high school commercial curriculum, and presented an outline offered by Mr. Cook as the basis for this reorganization.

They further recommended a wider development of the teaching of agriculture and home economics and urged that in the latter, as in the former, special credits be given towards graduation. They warmly advocated the organization of an industrial curriculum to include manual training and shop work.

SATURDAY MORNING'S SESSION

At the Saturday morning's session the topic for discussion was the "Place of Natural and Physical Sciences and Mathematics in Louisiana High Schools." Messrs. Snell, McKee, and Park were appointed as a Committee on Resolutions.

The first number on the program was "Secondary School Botany, Zoology and Physiology." Mr. P. D. Pavy of St. Landry and Mr. William Freshwater of Evergreen discussed this quection from the point of view of the time that should be allotted to these subjects, and the particular year in which they should be introduced into the high school. At the conclusion of this discussion the following resolution was adopted:

"It is the sense of this conference that too little time is allotted the subject of physiology in the present course of study, and that the arrangement of the course in these three subjects as it is at present is not satisfactory."

The second number on the program was "Physical Geography in the High School." Messrs. Hines of Abbeville, and Crichlow of St. Francisville spoke for its introduction. At the close of this discussion a resolution was adopted "That the course in Physical Geography be organized and introduced as an optional subject in Louisiana High Schools."

The third number was "The Requirement in Physics and Chemistry." Messrs. Griffith of Eunice and Dunn of Amite led in the discussion of this subject. It was the consensus of opinion that the courses as organized in these two subjects were eminently satisfactory.

"The High School Courses in Mathematics" was the last subject for discussion. Messrs. Collins of Crowley and Chennault of Winnsboro were the leaders in this discussion. Dean A. B. Dinwiddie of the College of Arts and Sciences, Tulane

University, spoke on this subject, and urged that more time be given to algebra. He expressed satisfaction with the present arrangement of the course in geometry.

At the close of the discussion a resolution was adopted "That one-half year additional course in arithmetic and algebra be organized and that either one of these courses be given as an option with solid geometry in the eleventh grade."

Colonel J. W. Nicholson of the Louisiana State University made a brief address to the principals on "The Present Tendency in Education in The South." He referred to the old cultural idea and the new demand for a practical education. He argued that both were essential and urged that the latter should not entirely supplant the former. He said that the education of the future was going to be concerned with, and be grouped about the following important interests: home, health, citizenship, and a vocation.

Mr. E. S. Richardson spoke briefly urging the co-operation of the principals in the matter of the extension of the agricultural work and the organization of agricultural clubs of different kinds.

High School Inspector, Leo M. Favrot, stated that the high school principals of the state should make an effort to send an exhibit to the State Fair at Shreveport next fall. He expressed gratification at the success of the meeting and the interest manifested by the principals. He said that seventy-five of the high, school principals of the State were in attendance at the conference and a number of principals of schools not approved as state high schools. He felt that the conference would go far towards solving the perplexing problem of a satisfactory course of study for the high schools of the State.

The question of the resolutions submitted by the five committees appointed at one time or another came up for discussion. It was the consensus of opinion that the matters discussed at this conference and forming the content of these resolutions were all of too important a nature to be acted on without greater time and study being given the whole subject. It was, therefore, determined to take no action on any of the resolutions submitted. It was decided, however, that the high school inspector name a number of various committees to study the question of the reorganization of the high school work, and that every resolution passed by this conference and as much of the discussion as could be gathered together be placed in the hand of these committees, that they might act in conformity with the desire of the body of principles represented at this conference. It was further decided that these committees should report at the high school conference to be held in connection with the meeting of the State Teachers' Association at Alexandria in April of 1912.

The following report was submitted to the conferences:

"We, your committee to report on a general scheme to provide for more flexibility in our high school courses, beg leave to report the following:

1. All high school students of whatever course, must make 9.5 credits or units in the following subjects: English, three; mathematics, two and five-tenths; history, two; and science, two—which equals 9.5.

2. There must be definite work to the value of three credits for each of the following courses: Literary, Commercial, Agriculture, Home Economics, Manual Training, and Social Science.

3. The additional units (2.5) to be required for graduation must be selected from organized courses in various subjects approved by the State Department of Education.

TABULAR PRESENTATION PRESCRIBED FOR ALL.

English	3.0 units.
Mathematics	2.5 units.
History	2.0 units.
Science	2.0 units.

PRESCRIBED FOR DISTINCT COURSES.

Literary (Foreign Language)	3.0 units.
Commercial (Bookkeeping, Typewriting, Stenography)	3.0 units.
Agriculture (Etc.)	3.0 units.
Home Economics (Etc.)	3.0 units.
Industrial (Etc.)	3.0 units.
Social Science (Etc.)	3.0 units.

OPTIONAL OR ELECTIVE.

Two and five-tenths additional units to be selected.

(Signed)

C. A. IVES,
E. S. JENKINS,
S. M. COOK,
LEO M. FAVROT.

Before the principals adjourned, the following resolution was adopted:

"Whereas, it has been the privilege and the pleasure of the Principals of the High Schools of Louisiana to hold their Annual Conference for the year 1911-1912 at the State University.

Therefore, be it resolved, that we express our sincere thanks to the President and Faculty of the University for the distinguished courtesies which they have extended us on this occasion, and also to the student body for the entertainment which they have furnished.

(Signed)

J. B. SNELL,
J. R. McKEE,
A. J. PARK.
Committee."

The conference closed with the morning session on Saturday. In the afternoon the members attended the great football game between L. S. U. and Tulane.

AN OPPORTUNITY; AND HOW THE AUDUBON SUGAR SCHOOL USED IT TO ADVANTAGE

This present season, the students of the Audubon Sugar school who are doing 4th and 5th year work have had a very exceptional experience. During September the prospects of the sugar growing district in Louisiana were remarkably bright. The tonnage of cane was heavy, the maturity apparently good for the season, and the price of sugar higher than it had been in many years. Throughout the sugar belt there was a feeling that prosperity had come to the planters at last. This view was somewhat dispelled by the heavy rains in September and October accompanied by warm weather which caused maturing cane to grow rapidly a second time, thereby increasing the tonnage but lowering the purity of the juice and postponing the season of maturity. Although the cutting of cane generally begins at from the 10th to the 15th of October it was in many cases two weeks later that the factories began this year. Analysis made of cane about October 15th showed a maturity which was too low for profitable grinding. By October 25th most of the sugar houses in the state were in active operation, but even then proper maturity of the cane was lacking and the purity of the juice was low. In the first week of November came, however, the second blow. At a time when almost all cane was still in the field, there came a rather serious freeze, taking in the northern belt of the sugar growing parishes and reaching south as far as Whitecastle. This freeze did some damage but not a great deal. It, however, arrested the development of the somewhat immature cane at the point it had been reached. In consequence the crop throughout the state has been uniformly low in purity and in sucrose content. The cane was harvested as rapidly as possible and rushed to the Centrals but was exceedingly green in many instances, and the new growth was rarely cut from the cane, thus delaying work at the factory still further. For this reason, when the end of November was reached, the tonnage still to be ground and still uncut was abnormally large. Then came the third blow. After the first freeze, many planters had been warned to cut their cane and wind-row it immediately, but few followed the advice. Much cane, therefore, was standing when the second freeze came about the first of December. This freeze reached from the northernmost sugar growing districts to the Gulf, and killed the eyes of all standing cane, in some cases being sufficiently cold to split the cane. The cane was badly frozen throughout the entire belt, and, in consequence, subject to rapid fermentation and deterioration, which soon set in. Sugar house after sugar house found the yield in sugar per ton in cane steadily falling until it finally became a losing venture to buy cane at all. Certain sugar houses in order to keep the small grower in the cane growing business continued to grind at a loss of fifty cents to a dollar a ton of cane, which loss was steadily increasing. It finally became absolutely necessary to find some basis upon which to buy cane, because, owing to the difference in the care with which the small planters had preserved their crops, wide variations in individual shipments were noticed. Some cane was worse than worthless, while some could be ground with a fair margin of profit. It very soon became evident in many districts, that the prime object this year was not to reap the great reward that had been anticipated earlier in the season nor yet to make even a fair profit; it was to make an inevitable loss as small as possible and at the same time to protect the cane growers to such an extent as to stave off the impending ruin.

In the mean time the students of the Audubon Sugar School who were working at the Park, (in number 25) had found a very short crop awaiting them. Much of the Park cane had been used to increase the acreage for next year, thus cutting down the supply for this year available for grinding. This, together with the large number of students taking the Park course, brought it about that on December 1st the last stalk of cane had been ground and the sugar house operations entirely completed. The Park campaign was thus at an end three weeks before the usual time. It was at this period that the freeze came. As it soon became evident that centrals could buy cane only on chemical analysis, or even allow it to pass through their mills only after the chemist had approved it, there was immediate demand made upon the Station and upon the Sugar School and upon the University in general for extra chemists to help out in what was rapidly growing to be a crisis. The urgency of this call was appreciated by the University, both Dr. Coates and Prof. Kerr having made numerous trips through the sugar growing districts in the fall and being in close touch with actual conditions. When the facts were presented to President Boyd he agreed to send every student who could be of any service to the planters into the field immediately, and to extend their furloughs after the holidays until the urgent need for extra men had somewhat abated. Fifty students of the University, including the 1911 Sugar School graduates, were sent to various parts of the state, covering in fact the entire sugar growing district from Bunkie to Abbeville. These young men left immediately for their posts and worked steadily through the Christmas holidays. It is difficult to estimate accurately the indirect service which the University has thus been able to render the planters. The average contract for cane was based on 90c perton, for every cent which sugar was bringing in the market. With sugar at nearly six cents this made cane cost about $5.50 As the price of sugar fell this contract price dropped to about $4.50. This price, which was nearly universal, had been agreed upon, all parties concerned having in mind the normal cane of Louisiana, which might be counted upon to yield upwards of 150 pounds of sugar per ton. From the first, however, although the tonnage was large, the sucrose content was exceedingly small, and so the sugar houses were running at a very small profit. With the second freeze the yield of sugar per ton fell still further, in many cases to from 80 to 90 pounds per ton. This made an absolute loss to the sugar houses of over a dollar a ton. There was, however, this difference in the conditions. Whereas, at the beginning very few contracts contained the sucrose clause, whereby the price of cane would diminish with the falling sucrose content, most contracts did specify that the cane should be sound, unfrozen, and in good condition. The sugar houses were, therefore, in a position to refuse to accept any of this cane which was neither sound, unfrozen nor in good condition. If they were to insist upon this particular letter of the law, they would have forced into absolute ruin a large number of farmers who were just entering upon the growing of small crops of cane as a money crop. The larger cane growers might have weathered the storm, but for the smaller tenants the situation meant ruin. The sugar house was, therefore, in a difficult position. If they accepted damaged cane at contract prices, it would ruin itself; if it refused to accept the damaged cane at all it would ruin its tenants and the small cane growers; and it was necessary to keep these men growing cane for next year and the years to come. The only way out of the difficulty was by compromise. The cane was damaged but was not absolutely worthless, and although the problem of determining just how much a given ton of cane was actually worth to the sugar house was most difficult, still by the aid of the chemical analysis a fair valuation could be reached; without chemical analysis it was impossible to value cane at all. Not infrequently when cane was introduced into the mills without chemical analysis it actually gummed up the plant to such an extent that it was necessary to shut down the house for a couple of days in order to wash out every thing. The presence of this large corps of young chemists, therefore, made it possible for the planter to get something even for his damaged cane, and for the sugar house to buy cane without ruining itself at the same time. It is gratifying to know that the men from L. S. U. have stuck to their positions during the bad weather and trying conditions of the entire present campaign, and that without a single exception they have all given eminent satisfaction to their employers.

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